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NAME OF AUTHOR/NOM DE L'AUTEUR Catherine A. Matthews

TITLE OF THESIS/TITRE DE LA THÈSE Self-Concept, Self-Perception and Oral Reading of Fourth Grade Children

UNIVERSITY/UNIVERSITÉ University of Alberta

DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED/GRADE POUR LEQUEL CETTE THÈSE FUT PRÉSENTÉE Masters of Education

YEAR THIS DEGREE CONFERRED/ANNÉE D'OBTENTION DE CE DEGRÉ 1974

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

SELF-CONCEPT, SELF-PERCEPTION AND ORAL READING OF FOURTH GRADE CHILDREN

BY

© CATHERINE de NIVERVILLE MATTHEWS

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

AND RESEARCH IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE

REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1974

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Self-Concept, Self-Perception and Oral Reading of Fourth Grade Children" submitted by Catherine de Niverville Matthews in partial fulfillment for the degree of Master of Education.

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ABSTRACT

The following investigation was designed to examine how children in Grade four evaluated their oral reading ability when performing before a group and how they felt about oral reading before a group. The relationships that exist between children's self-perceptions as oral readers and their perceptions of how significant others (teachers, parents and peers) evaluate their oral reading was examined. Children's oral reading self-perceptions were related to their teachers', parents' and peers' evaluations of their oral reading ability and their performance on an oral reading test, a verbal ability test and a self-concept test. Children's scores on the self-concept test employed were related to their scores on a verbal ability test and also their scores on an oral reading test administered.

Five grade four classes were selected from three schools in the Edmonton Public School System. With the use of a screening device, three oral reading self-perception groups were chosen - a "good", an "average" and a "poor". In total, 34 subjects were chosen for the three self-perception groups consisting of males and females of average or above intelligence and within a one year age range. The subjects were tested individually on their oral reading ability and their verbal ability. A group self-concept test was administered. Interviews were held to determine the subjects' feelings concerning oral reading before a group, parents' evaluations

of the subjects as oral readers, and peers' evaluations of the subjects' oral reading ability. The teachers were asked to assess the subjects as good, average or poor oral readers. All testing was completed by the examiner during April, 1974.

The data was analyzed by means of correlations, analysis of variance and visual analysis. The information gathered from the interviews was also visually analyzed so that generalizations could be made.

No statistical relationship was found between children's verbal ability and their global self-concepts. However, verbal ability was found to be related to children's specific oral reading self-perceptions.

Oral reading accuracy performance was found to have no statistical relationship to children's global self-concepts but was found to be related to children's specific oral reading self-perceptions.

The relationship of oral reading self-perception and global self-concept was different for boys than for girls in this study. Oral reading self-perception was not related to boys' global self-concept scores. Girls with good oral reading self-perceptions achieved significantly higher global self-concept scores than girls with poor oral reading self-perceptions.

Most peers evaluated the oral reading performance of boys and girls as average. There was more variability in the teachers' and parents' evaluations. About 50% of the subjects' perceptions of how their teachers, parents and peers assessed their oral reading

were accurate.

Most children in the study seemed to enjoy reading before a group. However, many children said they experienced fear when oral reading before a group. All of the children enjoyed reading silently because they could concentrate better and found it easier to read silently.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to acknowledge and thank all those who assisted me during the course of this study especially:

Dr. W. D. Wilde, for the time he spent with me, for his encouragement, helpful suggestions and belief in the importance of this study;

Dr. J. K. Bishop and Dr. A. Berger, members of the committee, for their interest and constructive criticisms;

The principals, teachers and students involved in this study for their cooperation;

My classmates and friends for their guidance and help;

David, my husband, for his determination to see the finished product;

Marg, my sister, for sending me a book that sparked my interest in self-concept; and

My mother, for the concern and encouragement she has for all my endeavors.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM

Achievement in reading depends on many factors. According to Berretta (1970) an adequate self-concept is an important component in reading success. Investigators such as Wattenberg and Clifford (1964) have found that the self-concept of kindergarten children is positively related to their later success in reading.

A good deal of time in many classrooms is devoted to oral reading. Reports, stories, text-book material, directions, questions and answers are some of the things that are read orally. Yet, the relationship between self-concept and oral reading has received little investigation.

Few studies examine how children feel about the various tasks they perform in school. For the last few teaching years, the examiner has become interested more and more about children's feelings concerning such tasks as oral reading before a group and their evaluations of their oral reading ability. Oldroyd (1971) has stated that a child's self-image determines "what he does, how much he does and with what success (p. 27)."

Thus, this study will attempt to determine how children evaluate their oral reading before a group, and how they feel about oral reading before a group. It will also investigate the relationship of self-concept and oral reading achievement.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study is to determine how children evaluate themselves as oral readers when reading in front of a group and to find out how children feel about reading before a group.

This study will examine the relationships that exist between children's self-perceptions as an oral reader and:

1. their perceptions of how significant others (teachers, parents and peers) evaluate their oral reading;
2. their teachers', parents' and peers' evaluations of them as oral readers;
3. their performance on an oral reading test;
4. their performance on a verbal ability test; and
5. their performance on a self-concept test.

Also, this study will indicate whether the children's scores on the self-concept test employed are related to their scores on the verbal ability test and also their scores on the oral reading test administered.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Self-Concept. Self-concept refers to all the perceptions that a person has of himself especially the individual's perceptions of his worth and ability. Included in the individual's view of himself are his self-perception (his view of himself as compared to others) his self-other perception (his view of how others see him) and his

self-ideal (his view of how he wishes to be). (Quandt, 1972).

Global Self-Concept. The term global self-concept refers to the composite view that a person has of himself as measured by The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

Oral Reading Self-Perception. Oral reading self-perception includes the perceptions a person has of himself as an oral reader including his view of how his parents, teacher and peers evaluate his oral reading.

"Good" Self-Perception Group. "Good" self-perception group includes those children in the sample who thought that they read orally better than most children in their classroom.

"Average" Self-Perception Group. The term "average" self-perception group refers to those children in the sample who thought that they read orally about as well as most children in their classroom.

"Poor" Self-Perception Group. "Poor" self-perception group refers to those children in the sample who thought that their oral reading was not as good as most children in their classroom.

Oral Reading Before a Group. The term oral reading before a group refers to the practice in classrooms where individual students read before a group of their classmates or their whole class.

Verbal Ability. Verbal ability refers to a measure of a child's oral language facility as assessed by The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest.

HYPOTHESES

Null Hypothesis 1

There are no significant differences among the children in the "good", "average" and "poor" self-perception groups on:

(a) The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest, and

(b) The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

Null Hypothesis 2

There is no significant relationship between children's scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and their scores on The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest.

Null Hypothesis 3

There is no significant relationship between children's scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and their accuracy raw scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test.

Null Hypothesis 4

There is no significant difference in the means of the accuracy raw scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test

(a) when children are grouped by sex; and

(b) when children are grouped by their self-perception as an oral reader.

Null Hypothesis 5

There is no significant difference in the mean scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

(a) when children are grouped by sex; and

(b) when children are grouped by their self-perception as an oral reader.

ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS

Question 1

What relationship exists between children's self-perceptions as oral readers before a group and evaluations of their oral reading by teachers, parents and peers?

*Information for this question will be obtained from interviews which will be described in Chapter III. Copies of the interviews are found in Appendices E, F and G.

Question 2

What relationship exists between children's self-perceptions as oral readers before a group and their perceptions of how their teachers, parents and peers evaluate their oral reading?

*Information for this question will be obtained from the Subject Interview described in Chapter III and found in Appendix F.

Additional Information

Additional information concerning children's feelings about oral reading will also be obtained from the Peer Interview and the Subject Interview described in Chapter III and found in Appendices E and F. Information will also be obtained from the Parent Interview described in Chapter III and found in Appendix G.

LIMITATIONS

The generalizability of the findings of this study are limited in accordance with the following considerations:

(1) The number of students in each self-perception group was small. The children were grouped according to how they evaluated their oral reading on the Oral Reading and Me screening device designed by the examiner.

(2) Self evaluations dependent on the subject's self report are conditioned by the individual's clarity of his self awareness and his willingness to cooperate. The examiner is aware that some children may not have had a clear and definite perception of their oral reading ability.

(3) The examiner realizes that social expectancy and freedom from threat are important factors to consider when interpreting information obtained from interviews.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Because so many educators and parents are interested in child development especially in personality development at home and in school, there is a great need for more informative research in this area. Much of a child's experience in school involves various reading tasks. How a child perceives and feels about his performance as an oral reader could affect his performance as an oral reader. Many classes in Alberta and elsewhere employ the practice of oral reading before a group. A child's perceptions and feelings of himself

as an oral reader before a group should be of importance and interest to educators, especially those who promote or discourage the practice of oral reading in groups.

OVERVIEW OF THE INVESTIGATION

In Chapter II a review of selected research pertinent to the problem will be delineated. Chapter III will contain the research design of the study with descriptions of the sample, standardized and examiner-constructed instruments, and the collection and methods of analyzing data. The results of the test data will be analyzed and explained in Chapter IV. The final chapter will present the summary, conclusion, discussion, implications and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SELECTED RESEARCH

INTRODUCTION

Recently many educators have shown a keen interest in the theories that have evolved concerning self-concept. Researchers such as Frerichs (1971) and Brookover, Erickson, Edsel & Jainer (1969) have found a significant relationship between school success and positive self-concept. In studies done by Lamy (1963) and Guiliani (1968) the self-concept of kindergarten children was found to be positively related to their later success in reading.

This chapter will present a review of some of the important theories about self-concept, definitions of self-concept, the development and characteristics of the self-concept, factors that may affect the development of the self-concept as a reader and as an achiever, and different methods used to measure self-concept.

THEORIES OF SELF-CONCEPT

Many who have studied human behavior have contributed to self theory. Among the first contributors were the social psychologists, Sullivan and Mead, who dwelt on the interactions which took place between people. However, phenomonologists, such as Rogers and Allport viewed the individual as seeing the world in his own particular way. Lecky added to the theory of self with his description and explanation of the consistency he observed in human behavior.

Sullivan (1940), a psychiatrist, developed what has been called an interpersonal theory of personality development. He used as his unit of study the interpersonal situation and not the person (Hall & Lindsey, 1957, p. 137). It is not the person as an isolated entity that is being studied, but an interpersonal situation composed of two or more people who have an effect on the actions and reactions of each other. From the very beginning of life, Sullivan saw the infant immersed in a continual flow of interpersonal situations in which the child receives an increasing stream of "reflected appraisals". Gradually, the child develops expectations and attitudes toward himself as an individual as he assimilates these "reflected appraisals" (Sullivan, p. 131).

Mead (1934) was a social philosopher who attempted to explain human behavior in his theories on social psychology. Many of his ideas are similar to Sullivan's. According to Mead the self is essentially a social structure which arises in social experience (p. 140). Through interactions with others, the individual develops the skill to step outside himself and look back upon himself as an object. Initially the "others" are specific, but as the child grows they become more generalized. The individual becomes conscious of himself as an individual through social interaction with others. This is very similar to Sullivan's "reflected appraisals".

Rogers (1951) developed his theory of personality after many years of observing human behavior in counselling situations. His theory is based on the propositions of phenomenology which state that

the individual sees the world in his own way. In fact, Rogers stated that only a small portion of this world is consciously perceived but a large part is available to consciousness. The phenomenal field is accepted by the individual as reality and he operates within the field as it is perceived. "Phenomenologists view behavior as a function of the total human being in a total situation (Therrien, 1969, p. 26)."

Rogers pointed out that as a baby learns to distinguish himself as an object from his environment and as he perceives that some things belong to him and others to the environment, he is also building up a conception of himself in relation to the environment. These experiences become invested with value, either positive if the child likes it or negative if he doesn't. Values not only accrue to the self-picture through direct experience but through others' experiences and are perceived as if experienced by oneself directly. The example given is the child who is punished for doing something he finds pleasurable. There is a conflict between the desire to obtain pleasure and the desire to avoid pain. In resolving this conflict he may have to revise his self-image and his set of values in such a way that his true feelings and values are distorted (Hall & Lindsey, 1957).

Allport (1937, 1955) dwelt on the psychology of the individual. "Conditioning, reinforcement, repetition are clearly necessary before the young child can connect his bodily sensations, experiences, and verbal tags (e.g., his name) into an emerging self-identity (Allport, 1937, p. 138)." This type of "opportunistic" learning precedes the

forms of propriate learning which covers the self "as object" knowledge and feeling. In propriate learning the self is aware of itself. Whereas previously he thought, now he thinks about thinking. The process of self development is gradual and continues throughout life.

Lecky (1951) added to the theory of self with his ideas of self-consistency. He conceived of the personality as the true psychological unit. The personality is a "definite organization of reaction potentialities which represents the individual's organized conception of the world, his unique and peculiar system of values (p. 175)." The personality tends to remain relatively stable even though "objective behavior" is constantly changing. The personality resists change because of its necessity of preserving its essential integration and unity. The individual's task is that of maintaining its organization and stabilizing its values.

According to the theory of self-consistency, we avoid and even reject those experiences which are inconsistent with our values and seek those experiences which support our values. A comprehensive theory of self evolving from past contributions presents the self as developing from reflected appraisals arrived at through social interaction and selective experiences while maintaining its essential integration.

LABELS AND DEFINITIONS FOR SELF-CONCEPT

The terms self and self-concept are used in many ways and are derived from many different theories of human behavior. These terms are also found to have many global and specific labels such as self-esteem, self-perception, self-image, real self and ideal self.

Simmons (1973) used the term self-esteem to mean "the individual's global positive or negative attitude toward himself (p. 554)." Wylie's (1961) definition of self-esteem is very similar to Simmons' - the "congruence between self and ideal self" which means "being proud of one's self or evaluating one's attributes highly (p. 40)." The self-image is viewed by Simmons as an attitude toward the self which includes self-consciousness, stability (acting the same way in similar situations), self-esteem (defined above) and self-perception (the different selves as evaluated by parents, peers and teachers, all of which are dependent upon interaction).

Parts of the self that have been given specific labels are the real self and the ideal self. The real self is impossible to truly know but an approximation of it can be made by comparing an individual's statements about himself with judgements of people who know him well (McCandless, 1967, p. 280). The ideal self is the self a person aspires to be (McCandless, p. 273). Self acceptance occurs when there is little discrepancy between the ideal self and perceived self. Discontent or dissatisfaction can occur when the difference between ideal self and perceived self is great.

Most writers define the self or self-concept as all that a person thinks about himself. Hamachek (1971) called this the "self-as-object" definition, "as it conveys a person's attitudes, feelings and perceptions of himself as an object (p. 8)."

The term self-concept according to Quandt (1972) refers to "all of the perceptions that an individual has of himself; especially emphasized are the individual's perceptions of his value and his ability (p. 5)." Included in the individual's view of himself is his self perception (his view of himself as compared to others); his self-other perception (his view of how others see him) and his self-ideal (his view of how he wishes to be). The perceptions of self are based largely upon interactions with people important to him.

POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE SELF-CONCEPTS

Most experimenters and writers interested in self-concept refer to positive or good self-concept and negative or poor self-concept.

A good or positive self-concept, according to Quandt, "is one in which the person perceives himself as capable and/or important and is, therefore, able to perform at a normal or superior level (p. 5)." Glock (1971) stated that a person with a positive self-concept is (1) able to accept himself as worthy; (2) can realistically appraise his abilities and limitations; (3) can recognize both his good and bad points; (4) realizes he must be open to change both externally and internally; (5) can accept his shortcomings without endlessly blaming himself; (6) does not expect

himself to be infallible; (7) has a certain pride in his own thoughts and inclinations; (8) feels he has a right to his own individuality (pp. 406-407).

A poor or negative self-concept is one in which the person views himself as unimportant or incapable to such an extent that he is unable to perform at a normal level (Quandt, p. 6). All the characteristics that Glock applied to the positive self-concept can be stated in a negative way to portray a poor self-concept. The person with a negative self-concept does not necessarily have to have each and every negative characteristic but if his overall attitude toward life and himself is negative then his self-concept is liable to be a poor one.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF SELF-CONCEPT

Most theorists refer to the gradual development of the child's self-concept. The development of self begins in a baby as he learns to differentiate his body from his environment (Jersild, 1952, p. 16). Allport saw many influences contributing to the development of the self: maturation, bodily sensations that are repeated, "memory aided by verbal concepts", one's own name, "frustrations during the process of exploring and manipulating the environment", and the extension of the self when the child begins to realize what his parents expect of him. Eventually the child's self-image evolves through interaction with others. Sullivan supported this idea in his theory. In adolescence long-range purposes and distant goals

add a new dimension to the sense of selfhood (Allport, pp. 120-126). Coopersmith (1967) suggested that at some time preceding middle childhood the individual arrives at a general appraisal of his worth. According to Quick (1972), the individual learns about himself through success and failure and from other's reactions to him. Through this continuous feedback the child's self-concept is eventually formed.

FACTORS THAT AFFECT THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SELF-CONCEPT

Some of the many factors that have been considered in the research about self-concept are language, the influences of significant others, cultural influences, and environment.

Mead stated that the language process is essential for the development of the self (p. 135). Language is the key to awareness of the individual and the interpretation of self and others (Brookover & Erickson, 1969, p. 2). Rogers and Allport both expressed the idea that the child must be able to represent himself to himself before he can develop a self-concept. When a child uses his own name he is in effect defining himself. Jersild noted that individuals of all ages and all levels of education share the same emotions such as rejection, fear, joy and affection. Their choice of words changes, but the feelings remain the same (pp. 31-32). Lewis, Wolman & King (1973) observed that very young children were able to respond to physiological words such as hunger and sleep but that as they got older they were more able "to describe their intentions to resolve

feeling states" such as nervousness and sadness (p. 315). According to McCandless, it is possible that "highly verbal individuals have clearer or at least more articulate self-concepts than relatively nonverbal persons (p. 299)." A child's ability to articulate his feelings about himself may have some effect on the self-concept that he portrays. Therrian has stated that research is needed to ascertain the effect that verbal ability has on the consistency of scores of various measures of self-concept and to determine the influence that language has on the growth of the self-concept. Therrian also stated that research is needed in this area particularly because of the extensive use of verbal reports in assessing the self-concept (p. 100). The examiner will relate a measure of verbal vocabulary with a measure of self-concept that employs verbal report.

The influence of significant others such as parents has been discussed by many investigators. Mead concluded that the child develops self attitudes consistent with those expressed by significant others in his world. The attitudes that parents have toward their children is very important in forming the self-concept and so are their child rearing methods. Coopersmith discovered that the parents of children with positive self-esteems had "total or nearly total acceptance" of their children, "clearly defined and enforced limits, and the respect and latitude for individual action that exist within the defined limits (p. 236)." Dinkmeyer (1965) stated that all techniques of child training "whether they relate to dependency, aggression, feeling, or toilet training", play a part in the

development of the child's personality and thus self-concept (p. 197).

Many studies such as Braun (1973) and Perkins (1958) have been done concerning the influence of teachers and peers on the self-concept of a child. Perkins (1958) and Davidson (1960) found that teacher's perceptions of children's self-concept are in general positively and significantly related to the self-concept that the children expressed. Through interaction with students, teachers are able to make a fairly accurate estimate of how that child perceives himself. Perkins also noted that peer group perceptions of children's self-concepts are significantly more like these children's expressed self-concepts for "less threatening" percepts than they are for "more threatening" percepts. An individual's perceptions of how his peer group view him have been found by Goodman (1973) to be more important to the "posture" (positive or negative) of the self-concept than are the actual perceptions of those others. The peer group definitely affects the self-concept of an individual as does other parts of the child's culture and environment.

Cultural influences have been considered as antecedents of self-concept. The results have been conflicting. Dinkmeyer stated that the self is influenced by the child's particular religious, social and socioeconomic group. On the other hand, Goodman found that there was no significant relationship between the self-concept and sociometric scores of Grades four, five and six. Burger (1973) compared the self-esteem of low socio-economic black, Spanish and white students in Grades kindergarten, one and two and found no significant

difference in the main effect of the ethnic group membership. Coopersmith (p. 35) cited Rosenberg's study in which social class was found to be only weakly related and ethnic group affiliation unrelated to self-esteem.

The influence of the home and school environment on self-concept development has been discussed by researchers. Dinkmeyer asserted that the child's behavior is influenced by his environment. Behavior is a good indication of the child's self-concept. Richardson (1968) noted that the self-concept is formed early. If the child's environment is restricted, if the child feels helpless and inadequate, and if the adults he has contact with seem too powerful and wise, the child will develop a negative self-concept. The atmosphere and policies of the school can also affect the development of the self-concept. Punishment, failure and deprecation and ability grouping promote negative self-concepts (Purkey, 1970, pp. 40-41). LaBenne & Greene (1969) stated that various studies have indicated that the "regular class (random groupings) favors concepts of self, acceptance of self, feelings of belonging, and reduction of antisocial tendencies for all students - exceptional and 'normal' (p. 63)."

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SELF-CONCEPT

In writing about self-concept many authors include such aspects as consistency, the selective perception of experiences, motivation, body-image and multiplicity.

Lecky built his theory of self-concept around the fact that a person's behavior expresses an effort to maintain the inner consistency of the personality which has at its nucleus the person's evaluation of himself. This resistance toward anything that is incompatible or inconsistent with his evaluation occurs in differing degrees in all people. McCandless asserted that an individual "will select those behaviors that preserve or enhance" the "status quo" of the self-concept (p. 258). Coopersmith stated that although there are momentary, situational, slight shifts in self-evaluation the self-esteem of an individual remains constant for at least several years.

The selective perception of experiences is closely related to the characteristic of consistency. According to Richardson, people accept experiences which confirm their conceptions of themselves and reject or ignore others that would require a change in the self-concept. Combs and Snygg (1959) pointed out that "the very existence of the individual's need to maintain self imposes a selective effect upon his perceptions (p. 131)." Therefore, all perceptions that mean something to the individual are interpreted in terms of the "phenomenal self" already in existence. As Combs and Snygg suggested, this contributes to making the self-concept

less likely to change.

Motivation is another feature which is closely related to the self's striving for consistency. Purkey refers to motivation as the "dynamic quality of the self" which is the "product of the universal striving to maintain, protect, and enhance the self (p. 13)."

Another very important feature of the self-concept is body image. Secord and Jourard (Hamachek, p. 111) found that the feelings an individual had about his body were proportionate with a person's feelings about himself. Hamachek stated that "body perception is so firmly established that even drastic changes in the body may not at once result in corresponding changes in body percept (p. 109)." The example given was of the person with an amputated limb who typically continues to feel that the limb is still there.

Brookover and Erickson indicated that a person has many self-concepts depending on the situation or role he is playing at that time. A person may be a good dancer, a fair tennis player, a poor oral reader in front of a class but a good oral reader of his brother's bed-time stories. Some of these self-concepts (example, the concept of self as a son or man) are much closer to the core of the individual and as such have a greater effect on the person's total self-concept. As many of these multiple self-concepts as possible should be considered when evaluating a person's self-concept as negative or positive. The multiple self-concepts - the total of all the perceptions that an individual has of himself - can be expressed as a person's global self-concept (Quandt).

READING SELF-CONCEPT

Within the subcategories of self-concept each child has a "concept of himself which in turn is composed of several self-concept subroles (Quandt, p. 6)." The reading self-perception is that which relates specifically to reading. Quandt maintained that a good self-concept in reading will in no way interfere with the ability to learn to read but may "enhance the person's opportunities to learn to read well (p. 6)." Brookover and Erickson noted that "some students may conceive of themselves in their reading roles as disliking reading while at the same time feel quite competent as readers (p. 102)." Self-conceptions vary with the situation, i.e., when oral reading, a student may feel quite able to read with his peers in class while also believing that he is unable to read in front of a group of parents. There is no one self-concept of reading ability or any other self-concept which is operative in all situations (p. 103).

RESEARCH RELATING SELF-CONCEPT AND READING ACHIEVEMENT

Lumpkin (Caplan, 1969, p. 14), and Frerichs have found that there is a significant relationship between self-concept and achievement in reading. In studies done by Wattenberg and Clifford (1964), Lamy (1963) and Guiliani (1968) the self-concept of kindergarten children was positively related to their later success in reading. Glick (1973) found positive changes in the self-concepts of boys who were good readers.

However, Williams (1973) found that self-concept scores failed to add to the predication of reading success beyond the prediction of intelligence or reading readiness. He stated that his modified version of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory may not have measured the self-concept of the young child adequately.

Bond (1957) noted that some children who have had frequent unfortunate experiences in oral reading have become insecure and even frightened in such situations (p. 347). Natchez (1959) noted that retarded readers when engaged in oral reading generally manifested a significantly greater proportion of frustration reactions than non-retarded readers (p. 56). The frustration and fear that some children feel when oral reading may affect their perception of themselves as oral readers. Research is needed to determine how children feel about reading before groups and how they perceive of themselves as oral readers.

SELF-CONCEPT AND ACHIEVEMENT IN SCHOOL

A large number of studies have been done lately concerning the relationship of a child's self-concept and his school achievement. Cause and effect, teacher and parent expectations, age and sex have been related to the self-concept of the achiever.

Many theorists have been enthralled with the controversy of which comes first, poor self-concept followed by poor achievement or vice versa. Richardson stated that a "positive concept of self is crucial to success in school and life-long learning (p. 108)."

In a study to determine which came first poor self-concept or reading disabilities, Wattenberg and Clifford found that measures of self-concept taken in kindergarten proved significantly predictive and antecedent to reading progress. However, most writers are not as willing to state a cause and effect relationship. Purkey (1970) and Hamachek (1971) both believed that self-concept and academic achievement directly influenced each other and were mutually reinforcing i.e., a positive change in one facilitated a positive change in the other. Other studies such as Frerichs (1971) and Brookover, et al. (1969) show a significant relationship between school success and high self-concept. This supports the theories of Purkey and Hamachek that success reinforces a positive self-concept.

Teacher expectations have received much attention in the literature lately. It seems that the teacher's perceptions of a child's ability is transmitted to him through interaction and in many cases this "self-fulfilling prophecy" has had an effect on the child's achievement. Rosenthal (1968, 1973) compiled a number of studies demonstrating this "Pygmalion" effect. Palardy (1969) stated that when teachers believed that grade one boys did poorer in reading than girls the results proved them right.

Brookover et al. (1969), have done studies that found students' self-concept of academic ability is consistently correlated at .70 with the students' perceived evaluation of his ability according to his parents, teachers and peers. They also established that the parents had the most influence on the students' self-concept of

academic ability even in adolescence.

Studies that relate age to the self-concept of the achiever are usually cross-sectional studies that include several grade levels. A few longitudinal studies have been done but no conclusions can be made from the research so far. Burger found that the greatest increase in self-esteem for Grades kindergarten, one and two occurs between kindergarten and Grade one. He suggested that the school experience and greater peer influence may have some influence in the raise in self-esteem. In a longitudinal study of Grade four through to Grade seven, Douglas (1973) found that students showed a sharp drop in self-concept from Grade two to Grade four. Simmons and Rosenberg's cross-sectional study (1973) including Grades three through to Grade twelve showed a definite disturbance in self-concept during early adolescence. They reasoned that the change of environment into a large junior high school with added responsibilities could be factors in the change of self-concept. Whenever any great change takes place in a person's life, be it illness, success, change of school, death of a family member, or even a punitive teacher, a change in that person's self-concept may occur no matter what the age.

Many studies have included sex as a variable but little conclusive information has evolved. Oldroyd (1971) and Burger have found no significant differences between the sexes on self-concept scores. Dyson (1967) found no significant differences between boys and girls in patterns of acceptance of self or academic self-concept.

In comparing the grade point averages and self-concept of Grades three and eleven, Bruck (1959) detected that there was a significant sex difference. Douglas ascertained that the self-concept of girls in Grades seven and eight dropped except for "My school self". He found girls more anxious than boys and also that anxiety was significantly related to self-concept levels in all grades.

Although many studies have been done relating the self-concept of the achiever to such variables as cause and effect, teacher and parent expectations, age and sex, it appears that more research is needed in these important areas before conclusions can be made.

MEASURING SELF-CONCEPT
SELF REPORT VERSUS INFERENCES FROM BEHAVIOR

How does one measure an individual's self-concept? Can you rely on the individual to report about himself or can you make judgements from his behavior? The crux of these questions is validity, which has caused much controversy among investigators.

The self report is defined as the subject's account of his own inner feelings and experiences (LaBenne, p. 20). Rogers assumed that an individual's "frame of reference" could most accurately be determined by his verbal self-report (p. 494). Quandt (1972), LaBenne (1969), Wylie (1961), and McCandless (1967) have serious doubts about the external or construct validity of self reports as a measure of self-concept. Combs, Soper & Courson (1963) maintained that the approximation of a person's self report to the real self depends on the clarity of the individual's

awareness, the availability he has of adequate symbols of expression, his willingness to cooperate, social expectancy, his feelings of personal adequacy and freedom from threat. In spite of all the disadvantages of self report and its subjective nature, the self report yields evidence that can be obtained in no other way (LaBenne, p. 20). A lot can be learned by simply asking a person about himself. Even a general attitude about oneself whether it be gloomy or bright will usually come out in written statements or conversation.

The other way to measure self-concept is by informal observations from which inferences about a person's self-concept are made from his behavior. The assumption is that, if behavior is a function of perception, then it should be possible to infer the nature of the self-perceptions which produced that behavior by observation. This is not perfectly accurate, however, since skill and sensitivity of the observer is of vital importance (Combs, et al., p. 496). The objectivity of the observer is mandatory and the observations must be done over an extended period of time (Quandt, p. 12).

The necessity of using a trained observer and the time needed to make an accurate appraisal of one's self-concept from observations of his behavior renders this method of measuring self-concept far from economical. Combs, et al., found no significant relationship between inferred self-concept and self-reports. They used a "specially prepared", eighteen-item self report sheet. Upon examination of this measure it appears that the validity of this

measure in comparison with other self report measures may be questionable. McCandless, as expressed earlier in this chapter, believed that the statements by the individual combined with observations by people who know the person can give a better picture of the "true self".

SUMMARY

From the research reviewed in this chapter, it can be concluded that:

1. the self develops from "reflected appraisals";
2. these "reflected appraisals" are gradually assimilated through social interaction by the child;
3. the self strives to maintain consistency and selectively perceives experiences;
4. self-concept may be defined as all the thoughts (positive, negative or neutral) that a person has about himself;
5. verbal ability may have some effect on the self-concept that a person portrays but more research is needed in this area;
6. the self-concept of a person is influenced by significant others;
7. the self-concept consists of a number of self-concepts depending on what role a person is playing;

8. a child's self-concept may have an effect on his achievement in school;
9. a child's self-concept may have some effect on his reading achievement;
10. studies are needed to establish the relationship between self-concept and oral reading and to determine how children feel about oral reading before a group;
11. it is difficult to establish validity when measuring self-concept.

CHAPTER III

THE EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the experimental design is described. Information regarding the population and sample, the test instruments used, and the procedures used in the administration and scoring of the tests will be included. A pilot study was conducted to determine the adequacy of the screening device and the interview procedures. The results of this pilot study have been summarized. A description of the sampling procedures and the treatment of the data by statistical and descriptive procedures has also been given in this chapter.

THE POPULATION AND SAMPLE

Three schools were chosen from the Edmonton Public School System to take part in the study. Two schools were situated in an upper-middle or upper socioeconomic area in Edmonton. The other school was situated in a middle socioeconomic area in Edmonton. Five fourth grade classrooms were selected from these schools.

TEST INSTRUMENTS

Standardized Tests

Gilmore Oral Reading Test, Form D -- This individual test was designed to analyze the oral reading performance of pupils in

Grades one through eight. The test provides measures of accuracy of oral reading, comprehension of material read, and rate of reading. There are two new equivalent forms, C and D, which replace the original Forms A and B. Each form comprises ten oral reading paragraphs ascending in difficulty from first grade level to tenth forming a continuous story.

Reliability

Test-retest reliability was determined by administering both forms to samples of children in Grades three and six. Reliabilities were consistently higher in third grade. The reliability of the accuracy score was .94 in third grade and .84 in sixth grade. Reliability for the comprehension score was .60 for third grade and .53 for sixth grade. According to Harris (1972) the reliability of the comprehension score falls below accepted standards for the reliability of individual scores.

Validity

Statistical evidence of the validity of this test was obtained by administering the original form of the Gilmore Oral Reading Test along with the Standardized Oral Reading Paragraphs by Gray, and the oral reading test from the Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty to twenty-four pupils of the same age in Grade five. The Pearson product-moment correlations obtained for the accuracy scores ranged from .73 to .77. The correlation between the comprehension score and the Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty was .59. Harris stated that

the Gilmore comprehension score seems to be mainly a measure of short-term recall of directly stated details, with very few questions calling for judgements or inferences and is therefore disappointing in terms of content validity.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale -- This eighty item self-concept scale entitled "The Way I Feel About Myself" is a self report instrument designed for children in elementary school through high school. Administered in group form it requires a third-grade reading knowledge. Instructions and items are read aloud by the examiner in Grades three and four to compensate for inadequate reading ability. The children are to circle yes or no next to the statement marking the item the way they generally feel. The score is obtained by adding up the number of correct responses.

Reliability

The scale was judged to have good internal consistency. The Kuder-Richardson Formula 21, which assumes equal difficulty of items was employed with resulting coefficients ranging from .78 to .93. The Spearman-Brown odd-even formula was applied for half the Grade six and Grade ten sample, with resulting coefficients of .90 and .87, respectively (The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, Manual, p. 4).

The scale was judged to have adequate reliability. A two-month and four-month test-retest showed coefficients of .77 for 244 fifth graders (The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, Manual, p. 4).

Validity

The scale was judged to have validity when compared with the Lipsitt Children's Self-Concept Scale. A correlation of .68, significant at the .01 level, was obtained when 98 special education students, twelve to sixteen years of age were given the two tests.

Bentler (1972) stated that the scale possessed sufficient reliability and validity to be used in research.

Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest -- Since one of the purposes of this study was to relate children's verbal ability scores with their scores on a measure of self-concept this subtest from The Stanford Binet Intelligence Test, Form L-M was used. A copy appears in Appendix A.

The purpose of this test was to determine whether the subject knew the meaning of the words. In assessing the subject's performance awkwardness of expression was disregarded and completely logical definitions were not deemed necessary. Additional questions were asked by the examiner to determine whether the meanings were comprehended. There are forty-five words in the test increasing in difficulty. The test is usually stopped when the subject makes six consecutive errors. The final score is obtained by totalling the number of correct responses.

Examiner-Constructed Instruments

Sociogram. This instrument was constructed to determine the close friends of the subjects. The examiner used this information when choosing children for the Peer Interview. Some children who knew each subject well were asked to evaluate his oral reading, A copy

of this instrument can be found in Appendix B.

Oral Reading and Me. This screening device was designed to enable the examiner to classify the children in the population into three groups: 1) children who thought that they read orally better than most students in their classroom; 2) children who thought they read orally about the same as most students in their classroom; 3) children who thought that they did not read orally as well as most students in their classroom. A copy of this screening device appears in Appendix C.

The screening device itself did not change from its original form but the examples given to the children to prepare them to evaluate themselves as oral readers did undergo revision. Originally the examples given focused on soccer playing and handwriting. Certain children who were known to be good soccer players and others who were good handwriters were asked to evaluate themselves as soccer players and handwriters. Friends of those children were asked if they agreed with the evaluation. There was enough discrepancy in the responsesgiven by the children to indicate that the examples did not provide sufficient clarity. Due to this information the examples used were changed in the pilot study.

In the main study the Oral Reading and Me screening device was administered to a whole class at one time. The examiner attempted to establish rapport before using the screening device. With the help of name tags the examiner got acquainted with the children by questioning them as to their favorite sports, hobbies, television programs and after-school activities. The children were told that the

purpose of the study was to find out how they really felt about oral reading and themselves as oral readers. It was further explained that the appropriate way to find this out was to ask children themselves. The importance of telling the truth about how they felt was stressed.

In addition, the children were told that they would be asked to evaluate how well they read orally in comparison with all the other children in their class. To give an example, the examiner showed the children three samples of printing that could have come from any Grade one class. The samples had been reproduced on three large pieces of bristal board. (Copies of the samples of printing can be found in Appendix D.) The children were asked to evaluate the samples of printing and tell which sample they thought was about the same as most children's printing in Grade one, which one was better and which one was not as good as most children's printing in Grade one. The example was supposed to help the children understand how to evaluate themselves in comparison with the ability of other children. The example was used to explain how they were to evaluate themselves as oral readers on the screening device.

The sheets containing the Oral Reading and Me screening device were then passed out and the examiner read the questions aloud to the children. Numbers were used for identification on the sheets instead of names. The children were told that the numbers would ensure their anonymity and that nobody would see their answers except the examiner.

The Peer Interview. This instrument was constructed in order to determine how other children evaluated the subjects as oral readers before a group. Five children were asked to evaluate each subject's oral reading. The examiner used the Sociogram to find out which children had picked the subjects as friends. These children were asked to evaluate the subjects as oral readers. Other children were randomly chosen from the class to complete the five evaluations of the subjects' oral reading. In total the subjects were evaluated as oral readers by five children.

Each child given the Peer Interview was asked to evaluate the oral reading of a list of five children. A few of the subjects were included in each of these lists. None of the lists were exactly the same. The examiner hoped to conceal who the actual subjects were at this time.

The examiner attempted to establish rapport with each child receiving the Peer Interview by having the child talk about himself and his interests. Such information as who the children enjoyed listening to and what they liked hearing read aloud and why was obtained. See Appendix E for a copy of the Peer Interview.

The Subject Interview. This instrument was designed to find out: (1) how the subjects felt about reading aloud in front of a group; (2) what the subjects liked and disliked about oral reading; (3) how they thought others such as their teacher, parents, friends, and the good readers in their class would evaluate them as oral readers; and (4) if they classified themselves as oral readers in the same category as they had done on the Oral Reading and Me screening device.

The examiner attempted to establish rapport with the subject before the interview by explaining more about the study and getting the subjects to talk about themselves, their activities and interests. See Appendix F for a copy of the Subject Interview.

The Parent Interview. This instrument was devised by the examiner to determine how parents thought their child performed as an oral reader. The parents were also asked if their child liked to read out loud to them and how often their child asked for help in reading. A copy is included in Appendix G.

The Teacher's Evaluation. The teachers were asked to evaluate each student in their class as oral readers. A copy of the questions asked is included in Appendix H.

THE PILOT STUDY

A pilot study was conducted in late February (1) to determine the effectiveness of the examiner-constructed screening device, called Oral Reading and Me which had the students rate themselves as good, average or poor oral readers in comparison with all the children in their classroom; (2) to see if the children understand the questions in the Sociogram, the Peer Interview and the Subject Interview; (3) to practice administering the Gilmore Oral Reading Test, The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest.

The instruments were administered to children in a Grade four class assigned to the examiner by the Edmonton Public School Board.

The Oral Reading and Me screening device was administered to the whole class at one time. In preparation for the use of the screening device an attempt was made by the examiner to establish rapport. With the help of name tags the examiner spent a few minutes getting acquainted with the children by asking them such questions as what they liked to do after school, what television programs they watched, and what hobbies they had. The purpose of the study was explained to the students. They were told that the examiner wanted to find out how children really felt about oral reading. The examiner explained that the only way to find out how children felt about themselves and oral reading was to ask them. The examiner stressed the importance of the children telling how they really felt.

The children were told that they were going to be asked to compare how they read orally in comparison with everyone in the class. Examples were given to help the children evaluate themselves in comparison with others. A student, who was known to be a good soccer player, was asked how he thought he played soccer in comparison with all the children in his class. When he replied that he thought he was pretty good, another boy was asked if he agreed with the first boy's answer and he did agree. The examiner commented that the first boy had answered honestly and that this was very important for the study. Examples using handwriting were given in a similar way. The children were told that it was important to tell how they actually thought about themselves and to ignore others' opinions.

The Oral Reading and Me sheets were passed out with numbers for identification instead of names. The children were told that the numbers would ensure their anonymity and that nobody would see the answers except the examiner.

Most of the students said they were good oral readers. Because of the lack of variation in the responses given by the children it was felt that some changes should be made in the examples that were used. The examiner felt that perhaps asking only subjects who were known to be good soccer players or handwriters may have affected the results.

A second class was used to try another type of example. The other class that was available in the school used for the pilot study was a split Grade three and four. The same procedures were used to introduce the screening instrument. However, the examples chosen this time were pictures of people dressed differently. Three pictures were shown to the class and they were asked to choose which person they thought was dressed better than most people, which one was dressed about as well as most people and which one was dressed not as well as most people. The Oral Reading and Me screening device was administered in the same manner as with the first class.

There was greater variation in the way the children classified themselves as oral readers. The examiner felt that the children gave a truer expression of their feelings. However, many of the children disagreed in their evaluation of the clothing examples. The examiner felt that an example that would be less controversial would be better.

A third class was used to try out another example. A Grade five class in one of the schools used in the main study was made available. The same procedures were followed as before for the introduction and administration of the Oral Reading and Me screening device. This time the example used included samples of printing that could have come from any Grade one class. The samples were reproduced on large pieces of bristal board. The children were asked to evaluate the three samples of printing as to which one they thought was about the same as most children's printing in Grade one, which one was better and which one was not as good as most children's printing in Grade one. After a little discussion all the children agreed in their grouping of the printing samples.

The example of printing was used to explain how the children were to evaluate their oral reading. The example seemed to be appropriate since the results of the screening device showed a sufficient amount of variation in the responses. The decision was then made to retain this example as part of the explanation of the screening device in the study.

The Sociogram, the interviews and the standardized tests were administered to children in a Grade four class. The children seemed to have little difficulty with understanding the questions in the Sociogram. After completing several interviews it was decided that the questions in the Peer Interview and the Subject Interview were sufficiently understood. The examiner found that there was no difficulty in administering the standardized tests.

SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE

Information from the teacher as to teaching procedures in reading was obtained to ensure that oral reading was actually practiced in the classroom on a regular basis. Information from the cumulative cards in the schools was obtained to determine the verbal I.Q. scores on the Lorge Thorndike Intelligence Test and the birthdates of the students. Only those students who had a verbal score of 90 or above and who were between the ages of nine years, two months and ten years, two months were included in the sample.

Children were excluded from the sample if: 1) they had diagnosed learning disabilities; 2) they had apparent visual or auditory difficulties; 3) they had emotional problems; 4) they had difficulty understanding English; 5) they had been in the school for only a few months; or 6) their parents refused permission for their inclusion in the study.

Of the 142 children in the population, 47 had to be excluded, leaving a sample of 95 children.

The remainder of the population was classified into six groups of children: 1) boys who thought that they read orally better than most children in their class, 2) girls who thought that they read better orally than most children in their class, 3) boys who thought that they read orally about the same as most children in the class, 4) girls who thought that they read orally about the same as most children in their class, 5) boys who thought that they read orally not as well

as most children in their class, and 6) girls who thought that they read orally not as well as most children in their class (see Table 1).

TABLE 1

ORAL READING SELF-PERCEPTION GROUPS

SEX	GOOD ORAL READING SELF-PERCEPTION	AVERAGE ORAL READING SELF-PERCEPTION	POOR ORAL READING SELF-PERCEPTION
Male	6	5	6
Female	6	5	6

The Oral Reading and Me screening device was used to make these classifications.

A table of random numbers was used to select the test sample of six boys and six girls who thought they read orally better than most children in their class, five boys and five girls who thought that they read about the same as most children in their class, and six boys and six girls who thought that they read not as well as most children in their class. These groups of children were labelled as "good," "average" and "poor" self-perception groups.

TESTING PROCEDURES

During the month of April, 1974, the Grade four subjects in the three schools were given the various tests.

The instruments were administered in a certain order so that the children who were given the Peer Interview and the teachers would

not be conscious of who the subjects were when they evaluated the subjects as oral readers.

The instruments were administered in the following order before the final sample was chosen:

(1) The Teacher's Evaluation. The teacher was asked to categorize all the children in the class into three classifications: 1) those she thought read orally better than most children in her class; 2) those she thought read orally about the same as most children in her class; 3) those she thought read orally not as well as most children in her class.

(2) The Sociogram was administered to each class as a group in the same setting that the screening device was being administered. The children were told that the Sociogram would help the examiner become acquainted with them by showing who their friends were.

(3) The Oral Reading and Me screening device was administered. The screening device was introduced and administered in the same way as was described in the "Examiner-Constructed Instruments" found on page 32. The subjects were then chosen randomly as described in the "Selection of the Sample" found on page

(4) The Peer Interview was administered individually to 73 children in order to ascertain their evaluations of the subjects as oral readers. Thirty-seven boys and 36 girls were

interviewed. Boys were asked to evaluate five male children as oral readers and the girls were asked to evaluate five female children as oral readers.

The thirty-four subjects were then tested using the following instruments:

(1) The Gilmore Oral Reading Test,

(2) The Subject Interview,

(3) The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest, and

(4) The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale which was administered to the subjects in each class in a group consisting of from six to nine children. Each statement was read aloud twice by the examiner.

The Parent Interview was administered by the examiner by telephone to 33 mothers and one father of the subjects.

All testing was completed by the end of April, 1974.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

All the tests administered to the subjects except the self-concept scale were recorded on audio tape by the examiner. The information from the tapes was recorded on paper and all tests were marked by the examiner. The information obtained from the testing program for each child was coded, punched on data cards and processed by computer by the Division of Educational Research Services at the University of Alberta.

Correlations

Using the computer program Dest Ø 2, correlations were obtained for 1) scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and

scores on The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest, and 2) scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and accuracy raw scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test.

One-Way Analysis of Variance

By using the computer program ANOV 15 the means of the scores on The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest of the three groups of children who perceived themselves as good, average or poor oral readers were compared. The Scheffe Test was used to test the differences between the mean scores of the three groups. The Chi Square Test was used to test the "goodness of fit" of the scores of the sample.

By using the computer program ANOV 15 the means of the scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale of the three groups of children who perceived themselves as good, average or poor oral readers were compared. The Scheffe Test was used to test differences between the mean scores of the three groups.

Two-Way Analysis of Variance

The computer program ANOV 22 was used to determine if there was any significant difference in accuracy raw scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test (a) when children were grouped by sex, and (b) when children were grouped by their self-perception as an oral reader. F Tests were used to test the significance of the differences between the mean scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test for males and females and for the self-perception groups. Scheffe Tests were used to test the differences between the mean scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test for the three self-perception groups.

The computer program ANOV 22 was used to determine if there was any significant differences in scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (a) when children were grouped by sex, and (b) when children were grouped by oral reading self-perception. F Tests were used to test the significance of the differences between the mean scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale for males and females, and for self-perception groups. A Scheffe Test was used to test the differences between the mean scores for males and females and for the self-perception groups.

The data collected to answer Questions One and Two were visually analyzed for trends.

The information gathered from the Peer Interview, the Subject Interview and the Parent Interview was also visually analyzed so that generalizations could be made concerning children's feelings about oral reading, their evaluations of themselves as oral readers, and peer and parent evaluations of the subjects as oral readers.

SUMMARY

Thirty-four students in Grade four were selected to constitute the test sample. The subjects were classified into three groups according to their evaluation of themselves as oral readers as recorded on the Oral Reading and Me screening device. Twelve boys and girls were randomly chosen who perceived themselves as good oral readers, ten boys and girls were randomly chosen who perceived themselves as average oral readers, and twelve boys and girls were randomly chosen who perceived themselves as poor oral readers.

A pilot study was conducted by the examiner. Revisions were made on the examples used in the administration of the Oral Reading and Me screening device.

The various tests and interviews were administered to the subjects and their parents.

The results were tabulated and data analysis was done with the aid of the Division of Educational Research Services at the University of Alberta.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF TEST DATA

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will present an analysis of the results in seven main sections. The first section will present the results of the analysis of variance performed for hypothesis one. The second section will give the results of the statistical analysis yielding a correlation coefficient between the variables in hypothesis two. In the third section the statistical analysis yielding a correlation coefficient between the variables in hypothesis three will be discussed. The fourth and fifth sections will give the results of the analyses of variance performed for hypotheses four, and five. In the sixth section an analysis of the results concerning questions one and two will be presented. Finally, the results of the Peer Interview, the Subject Interview and the Parent Interview will be discussed. A summary of the results has been included.

FINDINGS WITH RESPECT TO HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis One

There are no significant differences among the groups of children who perceived themselves as good, average and poor oral readers on (a) The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest, and (b) The

Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

This hypothesis was analyzed by means of an analysis of variance technique. The ANOV 15 computer program was used to determine the differences among the three groups on The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest and The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

The Chi Square Test was used to test the "goodness of fit" of the scores of the sample.

Scheffe Tests of Multiple Comparison of Means were used to test the differences among the mean scores of these groups. The Scheffe Test was used in the comparison of the scores achieved by the three groups of children on The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest and The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

Comparison of The Self-Perception Groups on The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest

Table 2 shows the mean scores, the variance and the standard deviations for the three groups. Table 3 indicates that on The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest there was a significant difference between the mean scores of the "good" and "average" self-perception groups and between the mean scores of the "good" and "poor" self-perception groups. There was no significant difference found between the mean scores of the "average" and "poor" self-perception groups.

The Chi Square Test showed that the results differed significantly from chance at $> .01$ level of probability.

TABLE 2

COMPARISON OF GROUPS WHO PERCEIVE THEMSELVES AS GOOD, AVERAGE AND POOR ORAL READERS ON THE STANFORD BINET VOCABULARY SUBTEST

Self-Perception Group	Mean Score	Variance	Standard Deviation
Good	16.50	9.55	3.09
Average	12.80	6.40	2.53
Poor	12.17	1.06	1.03

TABLE 3

PROBABILITY MATRIX FOR SCHEFFE MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF MEANS ON THE STANFORD BINET VOCABULARY SUBTEST

	Good Self-Perception Group	Average Self-Perception Group	Poor Self-Perception Group
Good Self-Perception Group	1.00	0.00*	0.00*
Average Self-Perception Group		1.00	0.82
Poor Self-Perception Group			1.00

*significant at .01 level of probability

Comparison of the Self-Perception Groups on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

Table 4 shows the mean scores achieved by the three self-perception groups. Scheffe Tests of Multiple Comparison of Means were used to test the differences among the mean scores of the three groups. The Scheffe Test showed that there was a significant difference at the .05 level of probability between the means of the "good" self-perception and the "poor" self-perception groups. No significant differences were found between the "good" and "average" or "average" and "poor" self-perception groups.

TABLE 4

COMPARISON OF GOOD, AVERAGE AND POOR SELF-PERCEPTION GROUPS ON THE PIERS-HARRIS CHILDREN'S SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

Self-Perception Group	Mean Score	Self-Perception Groups		
		Good	Average	Poor
Good	63.25	-	N.S.	Sig.*
Average	59.70	-	-	N.S.
Poor	51.75	-	-	-

*at the .05 level
Note: N.S. = not significant
Sig. = significant

Hypothesis Two

There is no significant relationship between children's scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and their scores on The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest.

This hypothesis was analyzed by means of the "Pearson product moment" technique, calculated by the use of the DESTØ2 computer program.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale scores were found to have a low correlation of .31 with the scores on The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest at a .08 level of probability which was not considered significant.

Hypothesis Three

There is no significant relationship between children's scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and their accuracy raw scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test.

This hypothesis was analyzed by means of the "Pearson product moment" technique, calculated by utilization of the DESTØ2 computer program.

The children's scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale were found to have a low correlation of .26 with their accuracy raw scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test which was not significant at the .05 level.

Hypothesis Four

There is no significant difference in accuracy raw scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test:

(a) when children were grouped by sex, and

(b) when children were grouped by their perception of themselves as oral readers.

This hypothesis was analyzed by means of the analysis of variance technique. The ANOV 22 computer program was used to determine the differences in oral reading performance on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test by males and females, and by the three self-perception groups. Analysis showed if there was any interaction between sex and the self-perception groups.

F Tests were used to test the significance of the differences between the mean scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test for males and females, and for the self-perception groups. Results are found in Table 6.

Scheffe Tests of Multiple Comparison of Means were used to test the differences between the mean scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test for the three self-perception groups.

Comparison of the Accuracy Raw Scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test of the Three Self-Perception Groups

Table 5 shows the means and the variance for the three groups of children. Table 6 shows that there was no significant difference between the means of accuracy raw scores for males and females.

TABLE 5

COMPARISON OF CHILDREN'S ACCURACY RAW SCORE MEANS ON THE GILMORE ORAL READING TEST WHEN GROUPED BY SEX AND SELF-PERCEPTION AS AN ORAL READER

SELF-PERCEPTION AS AN ORAL READER	NUMBER	SEX	ACCURACY RAW SCORE MEAN	VARIANCE
Good	6	Male	43.83	1.76
Good	6	Female	42.16	1.89
Average	5	Male	33.39	5.83
Average	5	Female	38.39	5.28
Poor	6	Male	29.00	7.23
Poor	6	Female	26.83	7.01

TABLE 6

PROBABILITY MATRIX FOR F TEST COMPARISON OF MEANS ON THE GILMORE ORAL READING TEST FOR SEX AND SELF-PERCEPTION GROUPS

SOURCE	F	P
Sex	.00	.97
Oral Reading Self-Perception Groups	8.97	.00*

*significant at the > .01 level

Significant differences ($p > .05$) were found between the mean accuracy raw scores for the self-perception groups. No significant interaction was found between sex and the self-perception groups.

The results from the Scheffe Tests showed that the mean scores of the children in the "good" self-perception group were significantly different at the .05 level from the mean scores of the children in the "poor" self-perception group. No significant differences were found between the mean scores of the "good" and "average" self-perception groups or the "average" and "poor" self-perception groups.

Only the girls' mean score in the "good" self-perception group was appropriate for the subject's grade level according to the norms set out in the Gilmore Oral Reading Test Manual. All other groups had mean scores that were below the norm scores.

Hypothesis Five

There is no significant difference in scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

(a) when children were grouped by sex, and

(b) when children were grouped by their perception of themselves as oral readers.

This hypothesis was anlayzed by means of the analysis of variance technique. The ANOV 22 computer program was used to determine the differences in performance on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale for males and females and for the three self-perception

groups. The analysis showed if there was any interaction between sex and the self-perception groups.

F Tests were used to test the significance of the differences between the mean scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale for males and females and for oral reading self-perception groups. Table 8 shows the results.

Scheffe Tests of Multiple Comparison of Means were used to test the differences between the mean scores for the males and females and for the oral reading self-perception groups.

TABLE 7

COMPARISON OF CHILDREN'SCORES ON THE PIERS-HARRIS CHILDREN'S SELF-CONCEPT SCALE WHEN GROUPED BY SEX AND SELF-PERCEPTION AS AN ORAL READER

SELF-PERCEPTION AS AN ORAL READER	SEX	NUMBER	RANGE OF SCORES	MEAN	VARIANCE
Good	Male	6	54 - 71	59.66	4.99
Good	Female	6	52 - 78	66.83	1.18
Average	Male	5	43 - 78	60.40	2.20
Average	Female	5	54 - 68	59.00	3.90
Poor	Male	6	40 - 73	59.50	1.18
Poor	Female	6	33 - 59	44.00	1.05

TABLE 8

PROBABILITY MATRIX FOR F TEST COMPARISON OF MEANS ON THE PIERS-HARRIS CHILDREN'S SELF-CONCEPT SCALE FOR SEX AND SELF-PERCEPTION GROUPS

SOURCE	F	P
Sex	.90	.35
Self-Perception Groups	3.87	.03*

*significant at the $>.05$ level

Comparison on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

Table 7 shows the range of scores, the means and the variance for the three self-perception groups.

Table 8 shows that there was no significant difference in the mean scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale when the children were grouped by sex. It also shows that a significant difference ($p>.05$) was found between the mean scores of the self-perception groups. Significant interaction ($p>.05$) was found between sex and self-perception groups. (See Figure 1)

The results from the Scheffe Test showed that the mean scores for the girls in the "good" self-perception group were significantly different at the .05 level from the girls in the "poor" self-perception group. No other significant differences were found between sex and the self-perception groups.

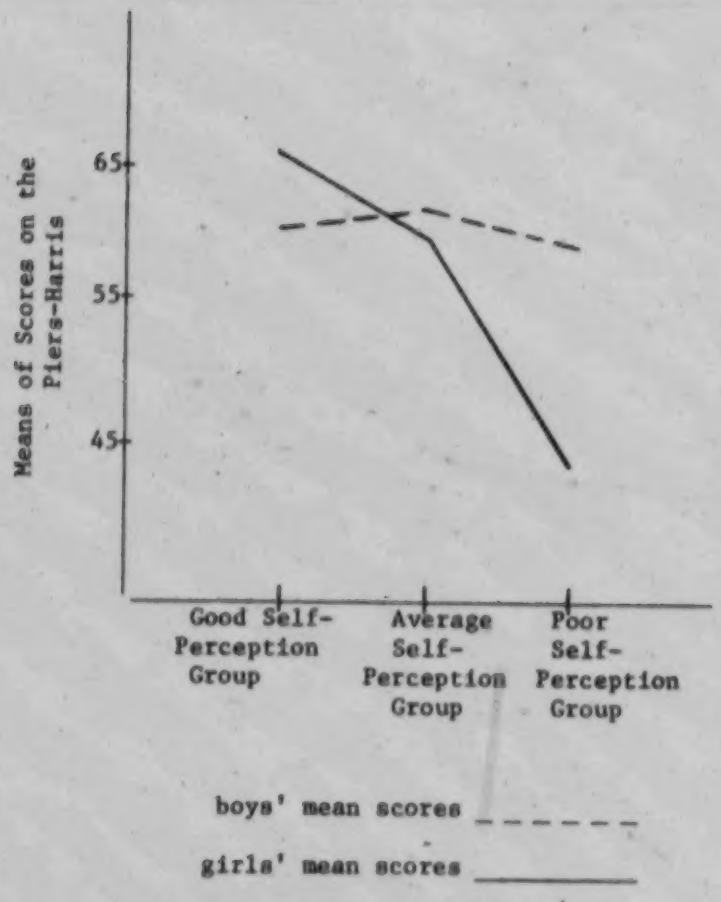

Figure 1

Interaction Between Sex and Self-Perception Groups for Scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

FINDINGS WITH RESPECT TO QUESTIONS

Question One

What relationship exists between children's self-perceptions as oral readers before a group and evaluations of their oral reading by teachers, parents, and peers?

The results of this question come from the teachers' evaluations of the subjects as oral readers, the Parent Interview and the Peer Interview. Table 9 shows the results for this question.

Sixty-six per cent of the teachers and 66% of the parents evaluated the boys in the "good" self-perception group as good oral readers. Sixty-six per cent of the teachers and 66% of the parents evaluated the girls in the "good" self-perception group as good oral readers. However, there were only five cases in which the teachers and parents agreed in their evaluations. Two of the parents were unable to evaluate their children as oral readers.

Fifty per cent of the peers evaluated these subjects in the "good" self-perception group as average oral readers. Forty-three per cent of the peers evaluated them as good oral readers. Seven per cent of the peers evaluated these subjects as poor oral readers.

The teachers and peers agreed in their evaluations in three instances while the parents and peers agreed twice in their evaluations of children in the "good" self-perception group.

In the "average" self-perception group 75% of the parents and teachers evaluated the students as average or good oral readers.

TABLE 9

CHILDREN'S SELF-PERCEPTIONS AS ORAL READERS AND EVALUATIONS BY TEACHERS, PARENTS AND PEERS

Self-Perception Group	Sex	Number	Teacher Evaluation	Parent Evaluation	Peer Evaluation *				
					A	B	C	D	E
Good	Male	1	A	G	A	A	A	A	A
		2	G	D.K.	G	G	G	G	A
		3	A	G	A	A	A	A	A
		4	G	G	G	P	A	P	A
		5	G	P	A	A	P	A	A
		6	G	G	A	G	G	G	G
Good	Female	1	A	G	G	A	A	G	G
		2	G	G	A	A	G	G	A
		3	G	G	G	G	G	G	G
		4	G	D.K.	G	G	G	G	G
		5	G	G	A	G	G	A	A
		6	P	P	A	A	A	P	A
Average	Male	1	P	G	A	G	G	A	A
		2	A	D.K.	A	A	A	A	A
		3	P	P	G	G	A	A	A
		4	G	A	A	A	A	G	G
		5	A	A	A	A	A	G	A
Average	Female	1	P	A	P	A	A	P	P
		2	G	G	A	A	A	A	A
		3	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
		4	G	G	G	G	A	A	A
		5	A	G	A	A	A	A	G
Poor	Male	1	A	P	A	P	G	P	A
		2	P	P	P	A	P	P	P
		3	A	P	A	G	A	A	G
		4	P	G	A	P	A	A	A
		5	P	D.K.	A	A	A	A	A
		6	A	G	A	A	A	P	G
Poor	Female	1	P	A	A	P	A	A	A
		2	P	P	P	P	A	P	A
		3	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
		4	A	G	A	A	A	P	A
		5	P	G	P	A	P	A	P
		6	P	P	P	A	A	P	A

Note - G = Good, A = Average, P = Poor, D. K. = Don't Know.

*The children picked for the "Peer Evaluations" are not the same children as the subjects in the self-perception groups.

However, there were only two instances in which the teachers' and parents' evaluations coincided. One parent of a boy in the "average" self-perception group thought her child was a good oral reader, whereas, 60% of the parents of girls thought their children were good oral readers. Thirty per cent of the teachers evaluated the boys and girls in this group as good oral readers and 30% of the teachers evaluated them as poor oral readers. The girls in the "average" self-perception group generally received higher evaluations as oral readers by parents and teachers.

Seventy-two per cent of the peers' evaluated the subjects who thought they were average oral readers as average oral readers. There were three cases in which the peers' evaluations were unanimous. There was only one instance in which the peers generally agreed that a subject in the female group was a poor oral reader.

The teachers' and peers' evaluations were the same in four instances while the parents' and peers' evaluations were the same in three instances.

In evaluating the students who perceived themselves as poor oral readers, 50% of the teachers and 66% of the parents agreed with the boys' evaluations of themselves. Sixty-six per cent of the teachers and 33% of the parents agreed with the girls' evaluations of themselves. One parent was unable to evaluate her child's oral reading. In comparing the teachers' and parents' evaluations, there was one case in which they were identical in the group of boys and two cases in which they were the same in the group of girls.

Sixty-six per cent of the peers thought that the children who perceived themselves as poor oral readers were average oral readers. The concensus of the peers' evaluations of one boy was that he was a poor reader; the consensus of the peers' evaluations of two girls was that they were poor oral readers.

The peers' evaluations generally agreed with the evaluations of the teachers more often than with the evaluation of the parents.

Question Two

What relationship exists between children's self-perceptions as oral readers before a group and their perceptions of how their teachers, parents and peers evaluate their oral reading?

The results for this question were taken from questions 7, 12 and 16 of the Subject Interview and are found in Table 10.

All children in the "good" self-perception group thought that their teachers, parents and peers evaluted them either as good or average oral readers. Fifty per cent of the boys and 33% of the girls thought that their teachers evaluated them as good oral readers; the remainder thought that their teachers evaluated them as average oral readers. Sixty-six per cent of the boys and all of the six girls thought their parents evaluated them as good oral readers. Only 33% of the boys, but all the girls thought that their peers evaluated them as good oral readers.

TABLE 10

CHILDREN'S SELF-PERCEPTIONS AS ORAL READERS AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF HOW THEIR TEACHERS, PARENTS, AND PEERS' EVALUATE THEIR ORAL READING

Self-Perception Group	Sex	Number	Perception of Teacher's Evaluation	Perception of Parent's Evaluation	Perception of Peers' Evaluation
Good	Male	1	A	G	A
		2	G	A	A
		3	A	A	A
		4	G	G	G
		5	A	A	A
		6	G	G	G
Good	Female	1	A	G	G
		2	G	G	G
		3	A	G	G
		4	G	G	G
		5	A	G	G
		6	A	G	G
Average	Male	1	A	A	A
		2	A	G	G
		3	A	A	A
		4	A	A	A
		5	A	A	A
Average	Female	1	A	A	A
		2	A	G	G
		3	A	A	A
		4	A	G	G
		5	A	A	A
Poor	Male	1	A	G	A
		2	A	A	A
		3	P	P	A
		4	A	A	A
		5	P	A	G
		6	A	A	A
Poor	Female	1	A	P	A
		2	P	A	A
		3	A	A	A
		4	A	A	A
		5	A	G	A
		6	A	A	P

Note - G = good, A = average, P = poor

Fifty per cent of the children in the "average" self-perception group thought that their teachers, parents and peers evaluated them as average oral readers. All the boys and girls thought that their teachers evaluated them as average oral readers. One boy and two girls thought their parents evaluated them as good oral readers; the rest thought that their parents evaluated them as average oral readers. One boy and two girls thought that their peers evaluated them as good oral readers; the remainder thought that their peers evaluated their oral reading as average.

Seventy-five per cent of the children in the "poor" self-perception group thought their teachers, parents and peers rated them as average oral readers. Only two boys and one girl thought that their teacher assessed them as poor oral readers; the rest believed that their teachers evaluated their oral reading as average. One boy and one girl believed that their parents evaluated them as good oral readers; one boy and one girl believed that their parents assessed their oral reading as poor; the remainder thought that their parents evaluated their oral reading as average. One boy thought his peers evaluated him as a good oral reader; the remainder believed their peers assessed them as average oral readers. One girl believed her peers evaluated her as a poor oral reader; the rest thought that their peers assessed their oral reading as average.

After the analysis of the teachers', parents', and peers' evaluations other information from the interviews was analyzed. The interviews included information concerning such things as children's feelings about oral reading and their reading interests.

FINDINGS WITH RESPECT TO INTERVIEWS

The Peer Interview

Question One (a). Do you like to listen to other children read in front of a group?

TABLE 11

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION ONE (a) -- PEER INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSES
65	Yes
6	No
2	Sometimes
73 - Total Number of Children Interviewed	

Question One (b). Why or why not?

TABLE 12

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION ONE (b) -WHY? -- PEER INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSES FOR WHY?
23	I just like being read to.
13	To compare my oral reading with others.
13	It is interesting, or I like the selections they read.
6	It helps me to learn new words.
12	Other reasons
67	Total Responses

Note - 67 Children answered positively (Yes or sometimes).

Of the 73 children that were interviewed, 65 said that they liked to listen to other children read in front of a group. The main reasons given were that they just liked to listen to others read, they could compare their oral reading with others so they could see how well they read out loud or how they could improve their oral reading. Others thought listening to children read was interesting or they enjoyed listening to the material that was being read, and they could learn new words by listening to other children read. Other reasons given were that they understood the story better when someone who was a good reader read it aloud, and it was easier than reading aloud themselves. Some didn't know why they liked to hear others read.

Six children did not like to listen to other children read. The reasons given were that it was boring, the children read too slowly, it was a waste of time, they couldn't stand it or they would rather read silently.

Question Two (a). Which children do you like to hear read?

When asked this question most girls mentioned girls' names, most boys mentioned boys' names, some named both girls and boys, and a few couldn't think of any children they liked to hear read.

Question Two (b). What do you enjoy hearing these children read?

TABLE 13

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION TWO (b) -- PEER INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSE
25	Any kind of story
22	Stories from the reader
10	Poems
9	Reports
17	Various kinds of stories
83 - Total Responses	

Note - Some of the 73 children interviewed gave more than one response.

Most children enjoyed hearing any kind of story or stories from the reader. Many liked to hear poems or reports and others named specific kinds of stories such as nature or animal stories, mystery stories, fairy tales or funny stories.

Question Two (c). Why do you like to hear them read aloud?

TABLE 14

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION TWO (c) -- PEER INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSE
30	They are good readers.
25	I like listening to the material they read.
7	It helps me to understand the story better.
7	They are my friends.
5	I learn about new things.
13	Various reasons
87 - Total Responses	

Note - Of the 73 children interviewed, some gave more than one response.

The main reasons given for liking to hear these children read were that these children were good readers who read fast, with expression and with few mistakes or they liked the subject matter being read. Some said that they understood the story better and thus found it easier to answer questions about the stories or that they learned about new things especially when listening to reports. Other reasons given were that they could hear these students when they were reading, that they could compare their own reading with these children and find out ways to improve themselves or that they just liked the way these particular children read.

Question Three (a). Which children do you not like to hear read?

TABLE 15

GIRLS' RESPONSES FOR QUESTION THREE (a) -- PEER INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSES OF GIRLS
17	Named Boys
5	Named Girls
9	Named Both Girls and Boys
5	Couldn't Name Any
36 - Total Responses	

Note - 36 Girls were interviewed.

TABLE 16

BOYS' RESPONSES FOR QUESTION THREE (a) -- PEER INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSES OF BOYS
6	Named Girls
21	Named Boys
7	Named Both Girls and Boys
3	Couldn't Name Any
37 - Total Responses	

Note - 37 Boys were interviewed.

Most of the children, male and female, named boys when asked to tellwhom they didn't like to hear read. Some children, male and female, named girls, while other children named both boys and girls who they didn't like to hear read. Some children could not think of any boys or girls who they did not like to hear read.

Question Three (b). What types of materials don't you like to hear these children read?

TABLE 17

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION THREE (b) -- PEER INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSE
45	Any story
8	Long or difficult stories
7	Reports
5	Poems
8	Other Stories
73 - Total Responses	

Note - 73 children were interviewed.

Most children did not like to hear these children read anything. Some did not like these children to read long or difficult stories, reports or poems. Some children disliked hearing these children read their own stories, plays, reports or funny stories.

Question Three (c). Why don't you enjoy listening to these children read orally?

TABLE 18

RESPONES FOR QUESTION THREE (c) -- PEER INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSE
51	They are poor readers.
25	I can't understand what they read.
10	I can't hear them.
7	They laugh when they are reading.
10	Various reasons.
103 - Total Responses	

Note - Of the 73 children interviewed, some gave more than one response.

Most children did not like to hear these pupils read because they were poor readers, they make many mistakes, had no expression, and read very slowly. Many children said they couldn't understand what these children read. Some children didn't like these children to read because they laughed when they were reading. Others gave reasons such as they found listening to these children read boring, or they read too loud or too soft or that they couldn't work while these children were reading aloud.

Question Four. I want you to evaluate the following children as oral readers in front of a group. Do you think that they are better oral readers than most children in your classroom, about the same as most children when reading aloud or not as good as most children in the class when reading aloud?

NAMES	EVALUATION
(Child's Name)	_____
(Subject's Name)	_____
(Child's Name)	_____
(Subject's Name)	_____
(Child's Name)	_____

This question has been included in the analysis of Question One found on page 58.

The Subject Interview

Question One: What kinds of stories do you like to read?

TABLE 19

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION ONE -- SUBJECT INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSE
22	Adventure or mystery stories
7	Funny stories
6	Nature or animal stories
12	Other kinds of stories
47 - Total Responses	

Note - Some of the 34 subjects gave more than one response.

In response to this question most of the subjects replied that they liked adventure or mystery stories that were exciting. Some said they liked funny stories or stories about nature or animals. Others replied that they liked any kind of story, sports stories, fables, or fairy tales.

Question Two (a). Do you enjoy reading a book by yourself?

Every subject replied that they liked reading a book by themselves.

Question Two (b). Why?

TABLE 20

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION TWO (b) -- SUBJECT INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSE
8	I can concentrate better.
6	Nobody bothers me.
6	I read better silently.
6	It is something interesting to do.
12	Various reasons.
38 - Total Responses	

Note - Some of the 34 subjects gave more than one response.

The reasons the children gave for liking to read by themselves were that they could concentrate on what they were reading better, nobody bothered them while they were reading to themselves, they could read better silently, they didn't make as many mistakes as

when reading aloud, and they found reading to themselves interesting and fun. Others said they preferred reading to themselves, they found it faster than reading aloud, and they could learn about different things when reading to themselves.

Question Three (a). Do you enjoy reading orally when you are in a reading group?

TABLE 21

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION THREE (a) -- SUBJECT INTERVIEW

SELF-PERCEPTION GROUP	SEX	NUMBER	RESPONSE		
			Yes	No	Sometimes
Good	Male	6	4	1	1
Good	Female	6	5	1	0
Average	Male	5	4	1	0
Average	Female	5	4	1	0
Poor	Male	6	3	2	1
Poor	Female	6	6	0	0

Note - 34 subjects were interviewed.

There were no great differences in the responses given by boys and girls except in the "poor" self-perception group. In the "good" and "average" self-perception groups most boys and girls did like to read orally in a reading group. However, in the "poor" self-perception group all the girls and only three of the boys said that they liked reading orally in a reading group.

Question Three (b). Why?

TABLE 22

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION THREE (b) (THOSE WHO ANSWERED "YES") -- SUBJECT INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSES OF CHILDREN WHO ANSWERED "YES"
12	To see how I read
8	I just like reading aloud.
6	Other reasons
26 - Total Responses	

Note - 26 subjects said they liked reading orally in a group.

In answering why they liked reading orally in a reading group, most children replied that they wanted to see how they read aloud so they could correct themselves. Some said they just enjoyed reading aloud. Other reasons given were that they could get help with difficult words, it gave them practice, or it was better than doing the exercises in the workbook. Some children did not know why they liked reading aloud.

TABLE 23

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION THREE (b) (THOSE WHO ANSWERED "NO") -- SUBJECT INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSES OF CHILDREN WHO ANSWERED "NO"
3	I don't like reading before people.
3	I can't read well aloud.
3	It is easier to read to myself.
9 - Total Responses	

Note - Of the 6 subjects who did not like reading aloud before a group, some gave more than one reason.

The children who did not like reading orally before a group gave such reasons as they did not like reading before people, their voices got hoarse, they couldn't read well aloud and other children laughed at them, they found it easier to read silently and they thought it was better to read silently.

Question Four (a). Is there any time when you especially like to read orally?

Of the 34 subjects, 18 children answered "Yes," 15 children answered "No" and one student replied "Sometimes".

Question Four (b). If so, when?

TABLE 24

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION FOUR (b) -- SUBJECT INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSE
6	When reading to family members
11	If I like the material being read
4	When the whole class reads together
21 - Total Responses	

Note - Of the 18 subjects who answered "yes", some gave more than one response.

Of the 18 subjects who responded that there was a certain time when they especially liked to read aloud, most said they liked to read when reading to members of their family, often younger than themselves, when they liked the material being read, especially if it were humorous, or when the whole class read something together.

Question Five (a). Did you used to like to read aloud?

Twenty-two of the 34 subjects answered this question with a "yes" and 12 answered with a "no".

Question Five (b). If so, when?

Most children said that they used to like reading aloud in Grade one or two or three. Some said that they liked reading orally up until they were eight years old because before that they had to read aloud.

Question Five (c). If not, when?

Most children said that they didn't like reading aloud in

Grade one or two because they couldn't read well or children laughed at them.

Question Six (a). Is there any time when you used to be a better oral reader?

Six of the 34 subjects answered "yes", 28 subjects answered "no".

Question Six (b). If so, when?

Most of the subjects replied that they read better in Grade three, a few said Grade two or Grade one.

Question Seven. Does your teacher think that you are a good oral reader, about the same as the rest of the class, or a poor oral reader? This question has been included in the analysis of Question Two found on page 61.

Question Eight (a). Are you glad when your teacher asks you to read in front of a group?

Twenty-six of the subjects answered "yes", five said "no" and three said "sometimes".

Question Eight (b). Why?

TABLE 25

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION EIGHT (b) ("YES" RESPONSES) -- SUBJECT INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSE
10	So my teacher can hear me read.
11	I like reading aloud.
3	I can practice my oral reading.
2	I don't know why.
26 - Total Responses	

Note - 26 subjects gave "yes" as a response.

The main reasons the subjects gave for liking to be asked to read were that the teacher could hear their reading and they got attention, they just enjoyed reading aloud especially if it were something interesting, and they got a chance to practice their oral reading. Others couldn't think of a reason.

Those who didn't like it when the teacher asked them to read gave such reasons as they didn't like oral reading, they were afraid that they would make mistakes and they found reading aloud embarassing.

Question Nine. How do you feel inside when you read in front of a group? What happens to you inside when you read orally?

TABLE 26

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION NINE -- SUBJECT INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSE
11	Happy or good
12	Nervous or excited
14	Scared that I'll make a mistake
6	I get butterflies in my stomach
11	Other responses
54 - Total Responses	

Note - Of the 34 subjects, many gave more than one response.

About one-third of the children replied that they felt happy or good when reading in front of a group. Many children said they felt nervous, shakey, excited, or scared that they would make mistakes. Others said they got butterflies in their stomachs. Other responses were that they felt shy, angry when they made mistakes, proud that the teacher had asked them to read, or that they got hot, their hearts beat faster, their faces got red or they just felt queer.

Question Ten. What bothers you the most about reading in front of a group?

TABLE 27

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION TEN -- SUBJECT INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSE
13	Nothing
10	Feeling scared, or funny
5	Making mistakes
6	Other responses
34 - Total Responses	

Note - 34 subjects were interviewed.

Thirteen of the children replied that nothing especially bothered them about reading in front of a group. The other children replied that such things as feeling scared, nervous or funny, or making mistakes bothered them. Others said they didn't like it when other children laughed at their reading, or when the other children didn't pay attention when they were reading.

Question Eleven. What do you especially enjoy about reading in front of a group?

TABLE 28

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION ELEVEN -- SUBJECT INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSE
10	Nothing
8	Getting attention, feeling important
6	I can hear how good my reading is
6	It is fun
4	Other responses
34 - Total Responses	

Note - 34 subjects were interviewed.

About a third of the subjects said they didn't especially like anything about reading in front of a group. The other subjects replied that they liked getting the attention of others, or feeling important, they liked to hear how well they read in comparison with others, or they liked it because it was fun. Others replied that they could learn a few new words, or they could read what they had written themselves.

Question Twelve. Do your parents think that you are a good oral reader, a poor oral reader, or somewhere in between? This question has been included in the analysis of Question Two found on page 61.

Question Thirteen (a). Would you like to be a better oral reader?

Thirty of the children replied "yes". Three children in the "good" self-perception group replied "sometimes" and one girl in the "good" self-perception group replied "no".

Question Thirteen (b). Why or why not?

TABLE 29

RESPONSES TO QUESTION THIRTEEN (b) ("WHY?") -- SUBJECT INTERVIEW

NUMBER	RESPONSES IN ANSWER TO "WHY?"
11	So I wouldn't make so many mistakes
4	So I could get a good job when older
4	So I wouldn't need so much help when reading aloud
15	Various reasons
34 - Total Responses	

Note - 34 subjects were interviewed.

Many children wanted to be better oral readers so that they wouldn't make as many mistakes, so that they could get a good job when grown-up or so that they wouldn't need so much help when reading aloud. Other reasons given were that they wouldn't be so nervous or scared, they could read faster, they could get higher marks on their report card, or children wouldn't laugh at them.

The child who said she did not want to read any better gave the reason that she was already a good oral reader.

Question Fourteen. Do you read better than most children in your class, about the same, or do most children in your class

read better than you?

This question was asked to see if any of the subjects had changed their evaluations of themselves as oral readers from the evaluation that appeared on the Oral Reading and Me screening device.

In the "good" self-perception group, three boys and one girl changed their evaluations to average oral readers. In the average oral reading group no children changed their evaluations. In the "poor" self-perception group, two boys and three girls changed their evaluations to average oral readers.

Question Fifteen. How do the good readers in your class think of you as an oral reader -- good, about the same as most in the class or poor?

TABLE 30

RESPONSES FOR QUESTION FIFTEEN -- SUBJECT INTERVIEW

SELF-PERCEPTION GROUP	TOTAL NUMBER IN GROUP	SEX	RESPONSE			
			Good	Average	Poor	Don't Know
Good	6	Male	3	2	0	1
Good	6	Female	5	1	0	0
Average	5	Male	0	5	0	0
Average	5	Female	1	4	0	0
Poor	6	Male	0	5	1	0
Poor	6	Female	0	3	2	1

Note - 34 subjects were interviewed.

Most children in the "good" self-perception group thought that the good readers in their class would evaluate them as good oral readers. However within the "good" self-perception group more girls than boys said the good readers would evaluate them as good readers. In the "average" and "poor" self-perception groups most children thought that the good readers would evaluate them as average oral readers. However, more boys than girls in the "poor" self-perception group thought that the good readers would evaluate them as average oral readers.

Question Sixteen. Who are your best friends? Do most of your close friends think that you are a good oral reader, about the same as most children in your class, or a poor oral reader? This question has been included in the analysis of Question Two found on page 61.

The Parent Interview

Question One. How often does (Child's name) ask for help in reading?

Thirty parents answered that their child rarely or never asked for help in reading. Four said that their child often asked for help in reading.

Question Two. Does (Child's name) like to read orally to you?

Twenty-three parents replied that their child did not like to read orally to them. Some explained that their child used to like it in Grade one or two but did not like reading aloud now. Eleven

parents said that their child enjoyed reading aloud to them.

Question Three. Is (Child's name) a good oral reader? This question has been included in the analysis of Question One found on page 58.

SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS

The computer analysis to test the null hypotheses formulated by the examiner yielded the following results:

Hypothesis One

Significant differences were found between the mean scores on The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest of the "good" and "average" self-perception groups and the "good" and "poor" self-perception groups. There was no significant difference found between the mean scores of the "average" and "poor" self-perception groups.

On The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale a significant difference was found between the mean scores of the "good" and "poor" self-perception groups. No significant difference was found between the "good" and "average" or "average" and "poor" self-perception groups.

Hypothesis Two

The correlation between the scores made on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest was not found to be significant.

Hypothesis Three

The correlation between the children's scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and their accuracy raw scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test was not found to be significant.

Hypothesis Four

A significant difference in the accuracy raw score of the Gilmore Oral Reading Test was found between children in the "good" self-perception group and children in the "poor" self-perception group. No other significant differences were found between the other self-perception groups and sex. No significant interaction was found between sex and the self-perception groups.

Hypothesis Five

A significant difference in the mean scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale was found for the self-perception groups. Significant interaction between sex and the self-perception groups was found. No significant difference in the mean scores for the sexes was found. The mean score of the girls in the "good" self-perception group was found to be significantly different from the mean score of the girls in the "poor" self-perception group. No other significant differences were found between sex and any of the self-perception groups.

An analysis of the findings to answer the questions formulated by the examiner yielded the following results.

Question One

Sixty-six per cent of the parents and teachers evaluated the boys and girls in the "good" self-perception group as good oral readers. Fifty per cent of the peers evaluated them as average oral readers.

There was more variability in the parents' and teachers' evaluations of the boys and girls in the "average" self-perception group. The teachers and parents had higher evaluations of the girls' oral reading than the boys' oral reading in the "average" self-perception group. Seventy-two per cent of the peers evaluated these children as average oral readers.

Sixty-six per cent of the boys and girls in the "poor" self-perception group were evaluated as poor or average oral readers by their teachers and parents. Thirty-three per cent of the parents evaluated them as good oral readers but none of the teachers did. Sixty-six per cent of the peers evaluated these children as average oral readers.

Question Two

According to their answers on the Subject Interview all the subjects in the "good" self-perception group thought their teachers, parents and peers evaluated their reading as either good or average. Seventy-five per cent of the children thought that parents evaluated their oral reading as good, and all the girls said their parents thought they were good readers. Sixty-six per cent of the boys

thought their peers evaluated them as average oral readers while all the girls thought their peers evaluated them as good oral readers.

Seventy per cent of the subjects in the "average" self-perception group said that their teachers, parents and peers evaluated them as average oral readers. All subjects in this group thought their teachers evaluated them as average oral readers. Thirty per cent of the subjects thought that the parents and peers thought they were good oral readers.

About 75% of the subjects in the "poor" self-perception group thought that their teachers, parents and peers assessed their oral reading as average. A few subjects thought their teachers and parents evaluated them as poor oral readers and 17% of the subjects thought their parents assessed them as good oral readers.

An analysis of the findings with respect to interviews that were given by the examiner showed the following results:

The Peer Interview

Most children like to listen to other children read in front of a group mainly because they like being read to, they want to compare their oral reading with how others read, and they find the material being read interesting.

Most girls like to listen to other girls read and most boys like to listen to other boys read.

The greatest number of children said they enjoyed

listening to anything that these children read. Many named specific kinds of material, such as poems, reports or nature stories.

The most common reasons given for liking to hear these children read was that they were good readers, or they liked the material that was being read.

Most children named boys when asked who they didn't like to hear read.

What they didn't like to hear these children read was mainly any kind of story. The chief reasons given were that these children were poor readers and they couldn't understand what they read.

The Subject Interview

The subjects liked reading adventure or mystery stories mainly.

All subjects enjoyed reading a book by themselves. The chief reasons given were that they could concentrate better, nobody bothered them, they read better silently or it was an interesting pastime.

Most subjects said they liked reading orally when they were in a reading group. The main reasons given for why they liked reading orally were that they could see how good their reading was or that they just enjoyed reading aloud. The few students who said they didn't like reading aloud before a reading group gave reasons such as they did not like reading before a group, they couldn't

read well aloud or it was easier to read silently.

More than half of the subjects replied that there was no time when they especially liked to read orally. The other children said they liked reading aloud especially if they liked the material being read or when reading to family members.

Most of the subjects expressed that they used to like reading aloud in Grades one, two or three. The subjects who said that they didn't used to like reading aloud stated that it was mainly in Grade one and two because they weren't good readers.

Almost all of the subjects stated that there wasn't any time in the past when they used to be better oral readers. A few students said they used to be better oral readers in the lower elementary grades.

Most of the subjects replied that they liked it when the teacher asked them to read. The principal reasons given were that the teacher could hear their reading and they liked reading aloud. Those who didn't like it when the teacher asked them to read, gave reasons such as they didn't like reading orally or they were afraid they would make mistakes.

When asked to tell how they felt inside when reading in front of a group, about a third of the children stated that they felt happy or good. Many children said that they felt nervous, excited, or scared that they would make mistakes or that they got butterflies in their stomachs.

About a third of the children stated that nothing bothered them particularly about reading in front of a group. Others said that feeling scared or making mistakes bothered them.

When asked what they especially liked about reading in front of a group, about a third of the subjects replied "nothing". Others said they liked getting attention or hearing themselves read to see how well they read.

Most of the subjects stated that they wanted to be better oral readers. The main reasons given were that they wouldn't make so many mistakes, they could get a good job later, or that they wouldn't need so much help when reading.

Nine children changed their evaluations of themselves as oral readers to average. All these children were in the "good" or "poor" self-perception group.

Most subjects in the "good" self-perception group thought that the good readers in their class would evaluate them as good oral readers. In the "average" and "poor" self-perception groups most subjects thought that the good readers would evaluate them as average oral readers.

The Parent Interview

Most of the parents stated their children rarely or never asked for help in reading.

About two-thirds of the parents said that their children did not like to read orally to them while the rest stated that their children enjoyed reading aloud to them.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

SUMMARY

This study attempted to establish how children in Grade four evaluated their oral reading ability when performing before a group and how they felt about oral reading before a group.

Children in five Grade four classes were asked to evaluate their oral reading before a group. From a sample of 34 children, three self-perception groups were chosen - a "good", an "average" and a "poor". The teachers, parents and peers were asked to evaluate the subjects as oral readers. Their evaluations were related to the self-evaluations made by the subjects.

The subjects were given an oral reading test, a verbal ability test and a self-concept test. Their performance on these tests was related to their self-perceptions as oral readers. Scores on the self-concept test were related to scores on the verbal ability test and also to scores on the oral reading test.

Information concerning the children's feelings about oral reading was obtained from interviews given to the subjects and other children chosen to evaluate the subjects' oral reading.

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

The findings are presented in three sections. The first section restates the null hypotheses outlined in Chapter I and conclusions concerning their acceptance or rejection are discussed. In the second section, the questions outlined in Chapter I are restated and the findings are discussed. In the last section, the information obtained from the Peer Interview, the Subject Interview and the Parent Interview is presented and discussed.

NULL HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis One

There are no significant differences among the groups of children who perceived themselves as good, average or poor oral readers on:

(a) The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest, and

(b) The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

Analysis of the data revealed that there were significant differences ($p > .01$) between the mean scores of the children in the "good" and the "average" self-perception groups and between the mean scores of the children in the "good" and "poor" self-perception groups on The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest. No significant difference was found between the mean scores of the "average" and "poor" self-perception groups on The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest. Thus, Hypothesis One (a) was partially rejected.

(b) A significant difference ($p > .05$) was found between the mean scores of the "good" and the "poor" self-perception groups on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. No significant differences were found between the "good" and the "average" or the "average" and the "poor" self-perception groups. Hypothesis One (b) was, therefore, partially rejected.

Conclusion

The present data do not provide adequate grounds for totally rejecting either (a) or (b) of Hypothesis One. There were some significant differences among the oral reading self-perception groups on their verbal ability. It would seem that verbal ability is related to children's self-perceptions as oral readers. McCandless stated that it is possible that "highly verbal individuals have clearer or at least more articulate self-concepts than relatively nonverbal persons (p.299)." A child's ability to articulate his feelings about himself may effect the self-concept or a specific self-perception that he portrays.

It also appears that some children's global self-concepts are related to their self-perceptions as oral readers. For these children oral reading may be an important factor in their total evaluation of themselves.

Hypothesis Two

There is no significant relationship between children's scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and their scores on The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest.

Analysis of the data showed that there was no significant correlation between the scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and the scores on The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest. Thus, Hypothesis Two was accepted.

Conclusion

It appears that there is no significant relationship between global self-concept and verbal ability, although the specific self-perception of oral reading was found to be significantly related to verbal ability. It is possible that verbal ability is such a minor part of the self-concept that it has little effect on the global self-concept of a person.

Hypothesis Three

There is no significant relationship between children's scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and their accuracy raw scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test.

The correlation between the scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and the accuracy raw scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test was not found to be significant. Hypothesis Three was, therefore, accepted.

Conclusion

While other studies such as Frerichs' have found a significant relationship between self-concept and reading, the researchers usually used silent reading measures to assess reading achievement. However, in this study, the examiner has related oral reading accuracy

raw scores with self-concept scores. It appears that there is no significant relationship between a child's global self-concept and his performance on the specific task of oral reading accuracy. The oral reading test allowed only ten errors on any passage before the test was stopped. Hesitations and repetitions were the most common errors. Poor oral readers who made many hesitations and repetitions did not progress very far in the test because the test was stopped after ten errors. Good oral readers also made many hesitations and repetitions. The examiner felt that this did not provide sufficient variance in the scores made by the children. This could easily have affected the statistical analysis. Sample size may also have had an effect.

Hypothesis Four

There is no significant difference in the mean accuracy raw scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test

(a) when children are grouped by sex, and

(b) when children are grouped by their self-perceptions as oral readers.

No significant difference was found in the mean accuracy raw scores on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test when the children were grouped for sex. Thus, Hypothesis Four (a) was accepted.

A significant difference ($p > .01$) was found between the mean scores of the children in the "good" and "poor" self-perception groups on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test. No significant differences were found between the mean scores of the "good" and "average"

self-perception groups or the "average" and "poor" self-perception groups. Hypothesis Four (b) was, thus, partially rejected. In the statistical analysis, no significant interaction was found between sex and the self-perception groups on the Gilmore Oral Reading Test.

Conclusion

Sex and oral reading self-perception were compared to accuracy oral reading scores. The present data indicate that sex is not related significantly to accuracy oral reading scores. However, it appears that a child's self-perception as an oral reader has some relationship to his accuracy oral reading score. This supports the findings of Brookover, et al (1969) that children's self-concept of their academic performance affects their performance on a certain academic task. The present data also suggests that interaction between sex and self-perception groups on oral reading performance does not occur, i.e. boys and girls in the same self-perception groups do not differ in their oral reading performance.

Hypothesis Five

There is no significant difference in the mean scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

(a) when children are grouped by sex, and

(b) when children are grouped by their self-perceptions as oral readers.

No significant difference in the mean scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale scores was found when the children were grouped by sex. Hypothesis Five (a) was, thus, accepted.

A significant difference ($p > .05$) in the mean scores on The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale was found between the "good" and the "poor" self-perception groups. Thus, Hypothesis Five (b) was partially rejected. In the statistical analysis significant interaction ($p > .05$) was found between sex and the self-perception groups on the mean scores of The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. The girl's mean score in the "good self-perception group was found to be significantly different ($p > .05$) from the girls in the "poor" self-perception group. No other significant interaction was found between any of the other self-perception groups and sex.

Conclusion

Sex does not seem to be related to differences in self-concept scores. This supports the findings of Oldroyd (1971) and Burger (1973). It appears that children who evaluate themselves differently as oral readers make different scores on a global self-concept test. This confirms the finding in Hypothesis One (b). It seems that interaction occurs between sex and self-perception groups on self-concept scores. Girls who see themselves as good oral readers appear to differ from girls who see themselves as poor oral readers on global self-concept scores. Mead states that children develop self-attitudes consistent with those expressed by significant others. Children's self-concepts are influenced by the opinions of their teachers and parents. It may be that teachers and parents consider scholastic performance more important for girls than for boys when forming their evaluations of the children. How girls evaluate their performance on certain academic tasks such as oral reading may have an important influence on their global self-concepts.

QUESTIONS

Question One

What relationship exists between children's self-perceptions as oral readers before a group and evaluations of their oral reading by teachers, parents and peers?

Sixty-six per cent of the parents and teachers evaluated the boys and girls in the "good" self-perception group as good oral readers. Fifty per cent of the peers evaluated them as average oral readers. Forty-three per cent of the peers evaluated them as good oral readers and 7% of the peers evaluated them as poor oral readers.

More variability was found in the teachers' and parents' evaluation of the boys and girls in the "average" self-perception group than in the other groups. The teachers and parents had higher evaluations of the girls' oral reading than the boys' oral reading in this group. Seventy-two per cent of the peers evaluated these children as average oral readers.

Sixty-six per cent of the boys and girls in the "poor" self-perception group were evaluated as poor or average oral readers by their teachers and parents. Thirty-three per cent of the parents evaluated them as good oral readers but none of the teachers did. Sixty-six per cent of the peers evaluated these children as average oral readers.

The teachers' and peers' evaluations agreed more often in the "good" and "poor" self-perception groups than did the parents'

and peers' evaluations. The teachers', and peers' evaluations were the same in approximately the same number of instances as the parents' and peers' in the "average" self-perception group.

Discussion

It is interesting to note that peers generally evaluated the girl's oral reading higher than the boys' in the "good" self-perception group. However, the boys and girls did not differ significantly in their oral reading performance. It seems that some peers think that girls are better oral readers than boys. Possibly girls are evaluated as better oral readers than boys because they are better than boys at this skill or are praised more than boys for their performance in this skill area.

The researcher noted differences in parents' ability in evaluating their children's oral reading. Twelve per cent of the parents said they could not evaluate their child's oral reading because their child had not read orally at home since Grades one or two. Other parents had their child read orally regularly and were quite firm in their assessment of their child's oral reading, especially those parents who thought their children were poor oral readers. Perhaps their opinions had some effect on their child's evaluation of his oral reading. Brookover and Erickson found that the parents had more influence on children's self-concept of school achievement than teachers or peers. However it is interesting to note that 33% of the parents of the children in the "poor"

self-perception group assessed them as good oral readers while none of the teachers did.

It is noteworthy that the peers evaluated most subjects in the "good", "average" or "poor" self-perception groups as average oral readers. It is possible that some of the peers were unable to give a true evaluation of the subjects' oral reading. They may not have been in the same reading group as the subjects and perhaps had only a vague impression of how the subjects read orally. Another interesting fact was that the peers' evaluations agreed with the teachers' evaluations more often than with the parents' evaluations in the "good" and "poor" self-perception groups. It may be that the peers became aware of the teacher's feelings about a certain child's performance just as the child becomes aware of the teacher's feelings through interaction.

Question Two

What relationship exists between children's self-perceptions as oral readers before a group and their perceptions of how their teachers, parents and peers evaluate their oral reading?

All of the subjects in the "good" self-perception group thought their teachers, parents and peers evaluated their reading as either good or average. Seventy-five per cent of the students thought that their parents evaluated their oral reading as good, and all the girls said their parents thought they were good readers. Sixty-six per cent of the boys thought their peers evaluated them as average oral readers while all the girls thought their peers

evaluated them as good oral readers. Seventy per cent of the subjects in the "average" self-perception group said that their teachers, parents and peers evaluated them as average oral readers. All subjects in this group thought that their teachers evaluated them as average oral readers. Thirty per cent of the subjects thought that their parents and peers evaluated them as good oral readers.

About 75% of the subjects in the "poor" self-perception group thought that their teachers, parents and peers assessed their oral reading as average. A few subjects thought their teachers and parents evaluated them as poor oral readers, and 17% of the subjects thought their parents assessed them as good oral readers. One girl in this group thought her peers assessed her oral reading as poor.

In comparing the actual evaluations made by the teachers, parents and peers with the children's perceptions of how they would be evaluated, the examiner found that 50% of the children's perceptions of how their parents, teachers and peers evaluated them were accurate.

Discussion

The difference between boys' and girls' perceptions of how their parents and peers evaluate their oral reading is worthy of note. All girls in the "good" self-perception group thought their parents and peers evaluated them as good oral readers. However, 66% of the boys thought their parents evaluated them as good oral

readers, and only 33% of the boys thought their peers evaluated their oral reading as good. Also, 50% of the boys in the "good" self-perception group and only one girl changed their evaluations of their oral reading over time. The feedback that boys receive concerning their oral reading may not be the same feedback that girls receive. Boys may not perceive the feedback in a way that allows them to evaluate themselves in a consistent manner; whereas, the feedback may be perceived consistently by girls. Boys may not be as certain of their oral reading self-evaluation as girls because it is not an important component in their overall evaluation of themselves. Thus, boys' evaluations of their oral reading may not be as stable. Perhaps academic performance on such things as oral reading is of more importance to girls. Thus, the feedback girls receive about their oral reading performance has more significance than other feedback. Feedback in an area of importance would render perception less subject to change.

It is noteworthy that about 70% of the subjects in the three self-perception groups thought that their teachers evaluated them as average oral readers. Perhaps the children felt threatened in telling how their teachers really evaluated their oral reading. It is also possible that the children were not accurate in their perceptions of their teacher's evaluations.

The fact that only 50% of children's perceptions of how their teachers, parents and peers evaluated their oral reading were accurate is of interest. Perhaps the children did not have time

enough to think about the questions or perhaps many of them felt threatened in stating their perceptions of how their teachers, parents and peers evaluated their oral reading. It is also possible that the teachers, parents and peers may have felt threatened or perhaps were not certain of their assessments of the subjects' oral reading.

INTERVIEWS

The Peer Interview

Questions One, Two and Three dealt with children's preferences and feelings about listening to other students read.

Most children liked listening to other children read. The main reasons given were that (1) they just enjoyed hearing other students read, (2) they could compare their oral reading to the child reading, and (3) they found the material being read interesting.

Some children who did not like listening to others read found it boring, a waste of time and indicated that these children were poor readers.

Most girls liked to hear other girls read and most boys liked to hear other boys read. When responding to what they enjoyed hearing these students read, most children said "anything", but many named specific kinds of material.

When children said they enjoyed listening to others read, common reasons given were that (1) they were good readers, and (2) they liked the material being read.

Most children named boys when asked whom they didn't like to hear read. They didn't like these students to read anything regardless of the material. The chief reasons given were that (1) these students were poor readers, and (2) they couldn't understand what was read.

Discussion

It seems that most children do like listening to others read and it was found that children in the sample liked being read to. Apparently, many children listened to others read to make comparisons with themselves and to find out ways to improve.

As expected, some children did not like listening to others read. It appears that for these children oral reading is boring and a waste of time. They did not like listening to poor readers. Perhaps they felt uncomfortable with the oral reading practices in their classroom.

Most children did not like hearing boys read. The examiner noted that many children in a class named the same boy or boys whose reading they disliked. It may be that boys are expected to be poorer oral readers than girls and therefore many children may overlook girls who are poor oral readers.

The Subject Interview

(a) How did the subjects feel about oral reading? This includes information from Questions Three, Four, Eight, Nine, Ten, and Eleven.

Most students said that they liked reading orally in a reading group mainly (1) because they could see how well they read and (2) because they just enjoyed reading aloud. A few students said they did not like reading before a group because they didn't read well aloud or they found it was easier to read silently.

About half of the subjects said that there were times when they especially liked to read orally. These times were chiefly when they enjoyed the material they were reading or when they were reading to family members.

Several students replied that they liked it when the teachers asked them to read. The principal reasons given were (1) that they wanted the teacher to hear them read, and (2) they liked reading aloud. Those who didn't like it gave reasons such as (1) they didn't like reading aloud, and (2) they were afraid they would make mistakes.

When asked to tell how they felt inside when reading in front of a group, about a third of the students stated that they felt happy or good. Many students said that they felt nervous, excited, or scared that they would make mistakes or that they got butterflies in their stomachs.

About a third of the subjects stated that nothing bothered them particularly about reading orally. Others said that feeling scared or making mistakes bothered them.

When asked what they especially enjoyed about reading in front of a group, about a third of the students replied, "nothing". Others said they enjoyed getting attention or hearing themselves read to see how well they read.

Discussion

It seems apparent that most of the subjects liked reading orally before a group. In the Peer Interview it was found that children wanted to see how well they read. Those children who didn't like reading orally thought they were poor readers and feared making mistakes. It is interesting that although about a third of the children felt good about reading aloud, many others felt scared, excited or nervous. Unpleasant past experiences, fear of making mistakes or of having other children laugh at them can ruin the enjoyment and feeling of accomplishment for many children when oral reading. Bond and Natchez both noted children's negative reactions to oral reading.

(b) Perceptions of earlier oral reading performance and desire for improvement. Questions Five, Six and Thirteen dealt with these topics.

Most of the subjects said they liked reading aloud in the lower elementary grades. Those who didn't like oral reading in the primary grades said it was because they weren't good readers.

Almost all of the subjects stated that there wasn't any time in the past when they seemed to be better oral readers. Almost all of the subjects stated that they wanted to be better oral readers. The main reasons given were that (1) they wouldn't make so many mistakes, (2) they could get a good job later, and (3) they wouldn't need so much help when reading.

Discussion

It appears that most children think that their oral reading is better now than it used to be and almost all children would like to improve their oral reading.

(c) The self-evaluations of the subjects as oral readers in the interview.

Question Fourteen was asked to see if any of the subjects had changed their evaluations of their oral reading from those given in the Oral Reading and Me screening device.

In the "good" self-perception group, three boys and one girl changed their evaluations to average oral readers. No children in the "average" self-perception group changed their evaluations. In the "poor" self-perception group, two boys and three girls changed their evaluations to average oral readers.

Discussion

Nine subjects changed their evaluations of their oral reading. It may be as Coopersmith has suggested that children's self-perceptions are subject to changes in mood. When the examiner asked some of these subjects why they had changed their evaluations, several replied that they were not aware they had changed their evaluation and others denied that they had changed it. One girl in the "poor" self-perception group said that she changed her evaluation because she had more time to think about it. Another girl in the "poor" self-perception group stated that she had said she was a poor oral reader in the screening device because her peers thought

she was a poor oral reader. She said, however, that she really thought she read as well as most children in her class. It is worthy of note that this girl's teacher and mother both thought she was a poor oral reader.

(d) Reading interests and silent reading.

Questions One and Two dealt with these topics.

Most students named specific kinds of stories that they liked to read, mainly adventure or mystery stories.

All of the subjects said that they enjoyed reading a book by themselves. The chief reasons given were that (1) they could concentrate better, (2) nobody bothered them, (3) they read better silently, and (4) it was an interesting pastime.

Discussion

It appears that all of the subjects like reading silently. Many subjects said they found it easier to concentrate when silent reading and that they read better silently. This is of particular importance because it suggests that many of the subjects are enjoying independent reading.

The Parent Interview

Most of the parents stated that their children rarely or never asked for help in reading.

About two-thirds of the parents said that their children disliked reading orally to them. The remainder of the parents said their children did enjoy reading to them.

Discussion

The researcher found that many parents did not have the time to listen to their children read. Several parents said their children preferred to read silently. All the subjects stated in the Subject Interview that they liked reading silently because they could concentrate better and found it easier to read silently. Parents who thought their children were poor oral readers seemed the most certain of their evaluation. Other parents were not as definite. However, only two of the eight children who received these negative evaluations thought their parents would assess their oral reading as poor. Both these subjects were in the "poor" self-perception group. Perhaps these parents had a negative attitude about their children's performance in general or used different criteria for evaluating their children's oral reading than the children themselves used.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

(1) This study has shown that children's verbal ability is not statistically related to their global self-concepts. However, verbal ability was found to be related to children's specific oral reading self-perceptions. If children who have poor verbal ability evaluate themselves as poor oral readers, improving their verbal ability may improve their oral reading performance and self-perception. If children were more certain of word meanings and usage they might be more confident when oral reading. Teachers should provide

opportunities for the study of words and for discussion of word meanings and usage to promote verbal ability.

(2) In this study oral reading accuracy performance was not related to children's global self-concepts. However, oral reading accuracy performance was related to children's specific oral reading self-perceptions. It would appear that children with good oral reading self-perceptions perform better in oral reading accuracy than children with poor oral reading self-perceptions. This supports much of the research concerning self-concept and achievement.

Children need positive feedback to form good self-perceptions in specific skill areas. Promoting good or positive self-concepts in specific skill areas should be an important consideration in curriculum building and classroom practices. Telling children exactly what they do right or well at the time of performance is important feedback; i.e. telling John that he speaks very clearly when oral reading or that Jane is very observant of punctuation when oral reading.

If a child is made to feel that his effort is worthwhile and that others see him as an acceptable, able, important and wanted, a positive self-concept will be reinforced. A sensitive and observant teacher can determine what a child's interests are through conferences or observations of the child's free time activities. By capitalizing on these interests, by selecting materials to read to the class that deal with a specific child's interests, by encouraging children to read in their own interest area and share their information and ideas with a

group or class, much can be done for making a child feel that he is accepted by his teacher and peers.

Providing the child with feelings of success rather than failure is most important in building a positive self-concept in any area. Beginning a program with content in which the child already has some skill or ability, having the child instruct others in this area or construct charts or posters that illustrate this knowledge will help provide the feeling of success. The child can begin applying his strengths to unknown areas gradually, and instruction can shift slowly to areas or skills that the child needs for further success.

(3) The relationship of oral reading self-perception and global self-concept was different for boys than for girls in this study. Oral reading self-perception was not related to boys' global self-concept scores. It may be that oral reading performance is not an important part in the total evaluation that boys make of themselves. Girls with good oral reading self-perceptions achieved higher global self-concept scores than girls with poor oral reading self-perceptions. If girls' oral reading self-perceptions are positively related to their global self-concepts, then teachers and parents may be able to help promote positive global self-concepts in girls by fostering their positive oral reading self-perceptions. By providing oral reading material appropriate for their ability and by giving positive feedback when they do specific skills well, girls may develop positive oral reading self-perceptions. Perhaps, parents and teachers should reassess the criteria they use when forming general

judgements about girls. Areas of performance such as handicrafts, sports and hobbies should have equal consideration with scholastic performance.

(4) This study has shown that boys and girls do not differ in their oral reading accuracy performance. Yet, girls and boys in this study differed in their estimation of how their parents and peers evaluated their oral reading. All girls who thought they were good oral readers stated that their parents and peers evaluated their oral reading as good. But, of the boys who thought they were good oral readers, two-thirds stated that their parents assessed their oral reading as good, and only one-third stated that their peers assessed their oral reading as good. If boys who think they are good oral readers believe that significant others do not assess their oral reading as good, then it may be that boys when reading orally are criticized more than girls. Measurable criteria for judging oral reading performance must be used so that boys' and girls' oral reading is assessed in a similar way.

(5) This study has shown that many children like reading orally before a group. However, some children in this study did not like oral reading. Teachers should determine how the children in their class feel about oral reading and through discussion find out the reasons for their feelings. Through discussion with others, children may discover their own feelings about oral reading and possibly the reasons for their feelings. They may also develop healthier attitudes towards themselves and others.

If children have negative feelings about oral reading then teachers should endeavour to find materials at their ability level that these children would enjoy reading aloud to a group, or have these children read just to the teacher if it is for diagnostic reasons. The teacher may also consider engaging children who dislike oral reading in other profitable activities that they do enjoy.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The findings and conclusions from the study described herein produce the following suggestions for further research.

1. A cross-sectional study of several grade levels may prove useful to note if children's feelings about oral reading and their self-perceptions as oral readers are similar for different grade levels. It may be that certain children become proficient at reading or the material becomes too difficult for others at various grade levels and that there are differences in the way children react to oral reading at various grade levels.

2. A further study might be undertaken to examine how children react to different methods and materials that are used for oral reading at different grade levels. This might reveal some vital information for educators interested in curriculum development that reflects the interests of children.

3. A longitudinal study might be conducted with the subjects in this sample to determine whether the subjects with higher verbal ability would have more consistent self-concept scores over time than those subjects with lower verbal ability. Further research is

needed with larger samples to determine if there is any relationship between verbal ability and self-concept. A verbal ability measure that assessed syntax as well as semantics may give a better indication of a child's oral facility.

4. More studies are needed to ascertain the relationship of global self-concept and specific scholastic self-perceptions. Since the child's self-concept is made up of many specific self-perceptions, relating global self-concept to specific scholastic self-perceptions may reveal which scholastic self-perceptions are of most importance in children's overall evaluation of themselves.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

This study found that there was no significant relationship between global self-concept as measured by The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and verbal ability. However, children who had good oral reading self-perceptions differed significantly on verbal ability from children with average oral reading self-perceptions and also children with poor oral reading self-perceptions. No significant correlation was found between oral reading accuracy achievement and global self-concept. Nevertheless, the girls in this study who thought they were good oral readers differed significantly in their global self-concept scores from girls who thought they were poor oral readers. Children who thought they were good oral readers differed significantly from children who thought they were poor oral readers on oral reading accuracy performance.

In this study it was found that most of the peers evaluated the subjects as average oral readers. There was more variability in the evaluations made by teachers and parents. About 50% of the subjects' perceptions of how their teachers, parents, and peers assessed their oral reading were accurate.

Most children in this study seemed to enjoy reading before a group. Children want to see how well they read in comparison with others and often enjoy the material being read. However, many children experience fear when oral reading before a group. Children who don't like reading orally before a group find it boring or think that they are poor readers and fear making mistakes.

All children in the study stated that they enjoyed reading silently because they could concentrate better and found it easier to read silently.

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APPENDIX A

THE STANFORD BINET VOCABULARY SUBTEST SCORING: STANFORD-BINET INTELLIGENCE SCALE. MANUAL FOR THIRD REVISION. FORM L - M. pp. 232-253.

The Stanford Binet Vocabulary Subtest

1. orange
2. envelope
3. straw
4. puddle
5. tap
6. gown
7. roar
8. eyelash
9. mars
10. juggler
11. scorch
12. lecture
13. skill
14. brunette
15. muzzle
16. haste
17. peculiarity
18. priceless
19. regard
20. tolerate
21. disproportionate
22. lotus
23. shrewd
24. mosaic
25. stave
26. bewail
27. ochre
28. repose
29. ambergris
30. limpet
31. frustrate
32. flaunt
33. incrustation
34. retroactive
35. philanthrophy
36. piscatorial

37. milksop
38. harpy
39. depredation
40. perfunctory
41. achromatic
42. casuistry
43. homunculus
44. sudorific
45. parterre

APPENDIX B

SOCIOGRAM

Sociogram

Name _____

Which children in this class do you like to play with the most?

1st choice _____

2nd choice _____

3rd choice _____

APPENDIX C

ORAL READING AND ME

Oral Reading and Me

1. Do you hear someone read orally every day? _____
2. Do you sometimes read orally in front of the whole class? _____
3. Underline one of the sentences below that is true for you.
   a. I read orally about the same as most children in my class.
   b. I read orally not as well as most children in my class.
   c. I read orally better than most children in my class.

I.D. Number _____

APPENDIX D

COPIES OF PRINTING SAMPLES

APPENDIX E

PEER INTERVIEW

The Peer Interview

1. (a) Do you like to listen to other children read in front of a group?

   (b) Why or why not?

2. (a) Which children do you like to hear read?

   (b) What do you enjoy hearing these children read?

   (c) Why do you like to hear them read aloud?

3. (a) Which children do you not like to hear read?

   (b) What types of materials don't you like to hear these children read?

   (c) Why don't you enjoy listening to these children read orally?

4. I want you to evaluate the following children as oral readers in front of a group. Do you think that they are better oral readers than most children in your classroom, about the same as most children when reading aloud or not as good as most children in the class when reading aloud?

Names	Evaluation
(Child's Name)	_____
(Subject's Name)	_____
(Child's Name)	_____
(Subject's Name)	_____
(Child's Name)	_____

APPENDIX F

SUBJECT INTERVIEW

The Subject Interview

1. What kinds of stories do you like to read?
2. (a) Do you enjoy reading a book by yourself?
   (b) Why?
3. (a) Do you enjoy reading orally when you are in a reading group?
   (b) Why?
4. (a) Is there any time when you especially like to read orally?
   (b) If so, when?
5. (a) Did you used to like to read aloud?
   (b) If so, when?
   (c) Is not, when?
6. (a) Is there any time when you used to be a better oral reader?
   (b) If so, when?
7. Does your teacher think that you are a good oral reader, about the same as the rest of the class, or a poor oral reader?
8. (a) Are you glad when your teacher asks you to read in front of a group?
   (b) Why?
9. How do you feel inside when you read in front of a group? What happens to you inside when you read aloud?
10. What bothers you the most about reading in front of a group?

11. What do you especially enjoy about reading in front of a group?

12. Do your parents think that you are a good oral reader, a poor oral reader, or somewhere in between?

13. (a) Would you like to be a better oral reader?

    (b) Why or why not?

14. Do you read better than most children in your class, about the same, or do most children in your class read better than you?

15. How do the good readers in your class think of you as an oral reader - good, about the same as most in the class, or poor?

16. Who are your best friends? Do most of your close friends think that you are a good oral reader, about the same as most children in your class, or a poor oral reader?

APPENDIX G

PARENT INTERVIEW

The Parent Interview

1. How often does (child's name) ask for help in reading?
2. Does(child's name) like to read orally to you?
3. Is (child's name) a good oral reader?

APPENDIX H

TEACHER'S EVALUATION

The Teacher's Evaluation

Using a class list categorize the children in your class into three groups:

(1) those <u>you think</u> read better than most children in the class,

(2) those <u>you think</u> read as well as most children in the class, and

(3) those <u>you think</u> do not read as well as most children in the class.

Once there was a
boy and a dog
they want to the
fair his dog ran
in the gates
he hopt on to
the merry-go-round
and than it weat
around and his dog
hopt off the
merry-go-round

Once a pundatime
a littel boy and his
dog want too
the fare the
dog got los
so that is ho
it start. He trid
too kach it but
it kept on runing
he want to gat
a tikt and it
flout ted out

The LITTLE
Dog was scard
of the horses
and the BOJwenet
on the thing-um-a-
Jigsen
and thenwenet
to the cashier a
10¢ ticket came
out Then funny
thing shert hd penning
then teye wenet
homae